

Exploring the relationship between self-esteem and career anchors in the financial services industry

by

Fikiswa Cynthia Ndzobole

Submitted in accordance with the requirements for
the degree of

Master of Commerce

in the subject

Human Resource Management

at the

University of South Africa

Supervisor:

Prof Ingrid Potgieter

Co-supervisor:

Dr Melissa du Plessis

November 2019

DECLARATION

I, FIKISWA CYNTHIA NDZOBOLÉ, student number 38568497, declare that the dissertation of limited scope entitled, “**Exploring the relationship between self-esteem and career anchors in the Financial Services Industry**”, is my own work. All the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of a complete reference list. The work has not been previously submitted for any degree or examination in any other university.

I further declare that ethical clearance to conduct the research has been obtained from the Department of Human Resource Management, at the University of South Africa. Permission to conduct the research was also obtained from the participating organisation. I also declare that the study was carried out in strict accordance with the Unisa Policy on Research Ethics and that I conducted the research with the highest integrity considering Unisa’s Policy for Copyright Infringement and Plagiarism.

FIKISWA CYNTHIA NDZOBOLÉ
2019

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my appreciation to the following people:

Professor Ingrid Potgieter, for being patient and supportive. Thank you for your motivation, encouragement and guidance throughout my journey. Your knowledge and expertise has been of great assistance – I salute you!

Dr Melissa du Plessis, thank you very much for your professional supervision, suggestions and support.

Mr Andries Masenge, thank you for your assistance with the statistical analysis of the data.

University of South Africa (UNISA), thank you for financial and academic resource support.

The participating organisation, gatekeeper and the research participants who participated in the study. Thank you for your time and your valuable contributions, without you this research would not have been possible.

My wonderful children, (Buhle, Uzile and Simhle), I am so blessed to have you in my life. Thank you for your love and support.

Last but not the least I would like to thank my late father Colbert Thamsanqa Ndzobole for instilling the idea of learning (Ah! Mhlabuvundile) and my mother (Agrinette Swaphi Ndzobole) for your unending support, encouragement and prayers. Enkosi Mutsu!

“To God be the glory”.

SUMMARY

EXPLORING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SELF-ESTEEM AND CAREER ANCHORS IN THE FINANCIAL SERVICES INDUSTRY

by

FIKISWA CYNTHIA NDZOBOLÉ

SUPERVISOR : Prof Ingrid Potgieter
CO-SUPERVISOR : Dr Melissa du Plessis
DEPARTMENT : Human Resource Management
DEGREE : MCom (HRM)

This research focused on the relationship between self-esteem and career anchors in the context of career development. The objectives of the study were twofold. The first was to establish the relationship between individuals' self-esteem (as measured by the Culture Free Self-Esteem Inventory) and career anchors (as measured by the Career Orientations Inventory); and the second was to determine if self-esteem significantly predict career anchors. An online survey was administered to a non-probability, convenience sample (n = 77) of full-time individuals, employed adults at managerial and general staff levels, in the South African financial services industry. The sample consisted of predominantly married (58.4%), white (44.2%), females (57.1%) between the ages 35 and 44 years (32.5%). The Culture Free Self-Esteem Inventory for Adults (CFSEI 2-AD) and Career Orientations Inventory (COI) were used to gather data. Correlational analysis showed an association between the variables of CFSEI 2-AD and COI. A multiple regression analysis supported that self-esteem predict career anchors. Recommendations were suggested for use by human resource professionals to inform the career development of employees in the South African financial service industry.

Key Terms

Self-esteem, career anchors, career development and financial services industry.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION	<i>i</i>
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	<i>ii</i>
SUMMARY	<i>iii</i>
TABLE OF CONTENTS	<i>iv</i>
LIST OF FIGURES	<i>vii</i>
LIST OF TABLES	<i>vii</i>
CHAPTER 1: SCIENTIFIC OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH	1
1.1 BACKGROUND AND MOTIVATION FOR THE RESEARCH	1
1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT	8
1.2.1 Research questions with regard to the literature review	8
1.2.2 Research questions with regard to the empirical study	9
1.3 RESEARCH AIMS	9
1.3.1 General aim	9
1.3.2 Specific aim	9
1.4 POTENTIAL VALUE ADDED	10
1.4.1 Contribution on a theoretical level	11
1.4.2 Contribution on an empirical level	11
1.4.3 Contribution on a practical level	11
1.5 THE RESEARCH MODEL	12
1.6 MARKET OF INTELLECTUAL RESOURCES	13
1.6.1 Theoretical Models	13
1.6.2 Meta-theoretical statements	14
1.6.3 Conceptual descriptions	14
1.7 THE EMPIRICAL STUDY	16
1.8 CENTRAL HYPOTHESIS	17
1.9 THEORETICAL ASSUMPTIONS	17
1.10 METHODOLOGICAL ASSUMPTIONS	17
1.10.1 Sociological dimension	18
1.10.2 Ontological dimension	18
1.10.3 Teleological dimension	18
1.10.4 Epistemological dimension	19
1.10.5 Methodological dimension	19
1.11 RESEARCH DESIGN	19
1.11.1 Exploratory Research	19
1.11.2 Descriptive Research	20
1.11.3 Explanatory Research	20
1.11.4 Validity	20
1.11.5 Reliability	21
1.11.6 Unit of analysis	22

1.11.7 Research Variables	22
1.11.8 Delimitations	23
1.11.9 Ethical Consideration	23
1.12 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	24
1.12.1 Phase 1: Literature review	25
1.12.2 Phase 2: Empirical study	25
1.13 CHAPTER LAYOUT	27
1.14 CHAPTER SUMMARY	27
CHAPTER 2: META-THEORETICAL CONTEXT OF THE STUDY: CAREER DEVELOPMENT IN THE WORKPLACE	28
2.1 CAREER DEVELOPMENT IN A WORKING ENVIRONMENT	28
2.1.1 Careers	29
2.1.2 Traditional Careers	29
2.1.3 Development	32
2.1.4 Conceptualisation of Career Development	34
2.2 IMPORTANCE OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT	36
2.2.1 Psychological factors influencing career development	38
2.3 CAREER DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES	39
2.4 CHAPTER SUMMARY	40
CHAPTER 3: LITERATURE REVIEW: SELF-ESTEEM AND CAREER ANCHORS	41
3.1 SELF-ESTEEM	41
3.1.1 Conceptualisation of self	42
3.1.2 Conceptualisation of the term self-concept	43
3.1.3 Conceptualisation of self-identity	44
3.1.4 Conceptualisation of self-perception	46
3.1.5 Conceptualisation of self-regard	46
3.1.6 Conceptualisation of self-esteem	47
3.1.7 Theoretical models of self esteem	56
3.1.8 Variables influencing self-esteem	65
3.2 CAREER ANCHORS	68
3.2.1 Conceptualisation of careers	68
3.2.2 Conceptualisation of career confidence	69
3.2.3 Conceptualisation of career anchors	69
3.2.4 Theoretical models of career anchors	79
3.2.4.3 Schein's model of career anchors	83
3.2.5 Variables influencing career anchors	88
3.3 INTEGRATION OF SELF-ESTEEM AND CAREER ANCHORS	90
3.4 IMPLICATIONS FOR CAREER DEVELOPMENT	91
3.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY	93
CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	94
4.1 DETERMINATION AND DESCRIPTION OF THE SAMPLE	94
4.1.1 Composition of the sample by age	95

4.1.2 Composition of the sample by gender	97
4.1.3 Composition of the sample by race	98
4.1.4 Composition of the sample by marital status	99
4.1.5 Summary: Demographical profile of the sample	100
4.2 CHOOSING AND MOTIVATING THE MEASURING INSTRUMENTS	100
4.2.1 The demographical questionnaire	101
4.2.2 The Culture-free Self-esteem Inventories for Adults (CFSEI 2-AD)	101
4.2.3 Career Orientations Inventory (COI)	104
4.3 ADMINISTRATION OF THE MEASURING INSTRUMENTS	107
4.4 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS	108
4.5 SCORING OF THE MEASURING INSTRUMENTS	109
4.6 FORMULATION OF THE RESEARCH HYPOTHESES	109
4.7 STATISTICAL PROCESSING OF THE DATA	109
4.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY	112
CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH RESULTS	113
5.1 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS	113
5.1.1 Reporting of internal consistency reliability	113
5.1.2 Reporting of means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis	115
5.2 CORRELATIONS	117
5.2.1 Reporting of the bivariate correlations between CFSEI-2AD and COI	118
5.3 MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS	120
5.4 CONCLUSIONS REGARDING THE RESEARCH HYPOTHESES	122
5.5 INTERGRATION AND DISCUSSION	123
5.5.1 Demographical profile of sample and frequencies	123
5.5.2 Sample profile: self-esteem and career anchors	123
5.5.3 Research aim 1: To explore the nature, direction and magnitude of the statistical relationship between self-esteem and career anchors as manifested in a sample of respondents in the South African financial service industry.	124
5.5.4 Research aim 2: To determine whether self-esteem significantly predict career anchors.	125
5.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY	125
CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	127
6.1 CONCLUSIONS	127
6.1.1 Conclusions relating to the literature review	127
6.1.2 Conclusions relating to the empirical study	130
6.2 LIMITATIONS	134
6.2.1 Limitations of the literature review	134
6.2.2 Limitations of the empirical study	135
6.3 RECOMMENDATIONS	135
6.3.1 Recommendations for career development practices	135
6.3.2 Recommendations relating to self-esteem and career anchors	136

6.3.3 Recommendations for future research	137
6.4 INTEGRATION OF THE RESEARCH	137
6.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY	138
LIST OF REFERENCES	139

LIST OF FIGURES

<i>Figure 1. 1: Research Process (Kuada, 2012, p.58)</i>	13
<i>Figure 1. 2: Flow diagram of the research method</i>	24
<i>Figure 2. 1: Stages in Career Development</i>	35
<i>Figure 3. 1: Summary of conceptual foundation of self-esteem (Coetzee, 2005, p.112)</i>	41
<i>Figure 3. 2: Relationship of self-efficacy and self-respect leads to self-esteem</i>	51
<i>Figure 3.3: Summary of high self-esteem and low self-esteem (Reece, 2008, p.99)</i>	54
<i>Figure 3. 4: Battle's model of self-esteem (Battle, 1992, p. 33)</i>	61
<i>Figure 3. 5: Essential dimensions and underlying values of Battle's model</i>	62
<i>Figure 3. 6: Integrated theoretical model of the construct career anchors</i>	85
<i>Figure 4. 1: Sample distribution by age (n = 77)</i>	96
<i>Figure 4. 2: Sample distribution by gender (n = 77)</i>	97
<i>Figure 4. 3: Sample distribution by race (n = 77)</i>	99
<i>Figure 4. 4: Sample distribution by marital status (n = 77)</i>	100

LIST OF TABLES

<i>Table 2. 1: Benefits of career development</i>	37
<i>Table 3. 1: Definition of self-esteem</i>	50
<i>Table 3. 2: Characteristics of self-esteem</i>	54
<i>Table 3. 3: Definition of career anchors</i>	71
<i>Table 3. 4: Overview of career anchors with core workplace desires and values</i>	75
<i>Table 3. 5: Characteristics of self-esteem</i>	77
<i>Table 3. 6: Holland's personality types</i>	85
<i>Table 3. 7: Description of career anchors</i>	87
<i>Table 3. 8: Integration of self-esteem and career anchors</i>	91
<i>Table 4. 1: Age Distribution of Sample</i>	96
<i>Table 4. 2: Gender Distribution of Sample</i>	97
<i>Table 4. 3: Race Distribution of Sample</i>	98
<i>Table 4. 4: Marital Distribution of Sample</i>	99
<i>Table 4. 5: Dimensions of CFSEI 2-AD</i>	102
<i>Table 4. 6: Descriptions of COI scales</i>	105
<i>Table 4. 7: Research Hypotheses</i>	109
<i>Table 5. 1: Internal Consistency Reliability: CFSEI-2A</i>	114
<i>Table 5. 2: Internal Consistency Reliability: COI</i>	115
<i>Table 5. 3: Means, Standard Deviations, Skewness and Kurtosis: CFSEI-2AD</i>	116
<i>Table 5. 4: Means, Standard Deviations, Skewness and Kurtosis: COI</i>	117
<i>Table 5. 5: Bivariate Correlations between CFSEI-2AD and COI</i>	119
<i>Table 5. 6: Multiple Regression (CFSEI-2AD versus COI)</i>	121

<i>Table 5. 7: Summary of the findings of research hypotheses</i>	122
<i>Table 5. 8: Summary of Means of Measuring Instruments</i>	123

CHAPTER 1: SCIENTIFIC OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH

This study focused on exploring the relationship between individuals' self-esteem and career anchors amongst individuals employed in the financial services industry. This chapter outlines the background and motivation for the research study that flow into the formulation of the problem statement and research questions and aims. In addition, the chapter presents the paradigm perspective that supports the research study, the research design and methodology. Lastly, the final section outlines the chapter layout and concludes with a chapter summary.

1.1 BACKGROUND AND MOTIVATION FOR THE RESEARCH

The context of the research is career development within an organisation. The literature has shown several research conducted on the relationship between self-esteem and career anchors, but limited research seems to be available within the financial sector. Therefore, understanding the relationship between the constructs of self-esteem and career anchors may potentially contribute to the overall career development of individuals employed in the South African financial services industry. The research focuses on individuals' self-esteem and career anchors as aspects of their career development.

The issue of career development is seen as an essential concept in the management of human resources in contemporary business enterprises (Cline & Kisamore, 2008; Coetzee & Schreuder, 2016). There are several definitions of the term career development. However, in order to define the term "career development", one needs to separately define these two terms namely, career and development. In an earlier study conducted by Patton and McMahon (1999), the term career was defined as vocation or occupation or any form of remunerated employment. However, due to the existence of work-life balance in the contemporary business practices, careers are seen in broader perspectives (Patton & McMahon, 2006). Hence, the new definitions of careers consider the variables such as lifelong processes and the choices that people make as well as other internal and external factors that influence this form of employment (Cameron, 2009).

Consequently, scholars such as Schreuder and Coetzee (2011) concluded that a career refers to the significant learnings and experiences that help identify an individual's professional life, direction, competencies and accomplishments through positions, jobs, roles and assignments. On the other hand, the term "development" refers to an event constituting a new stage in a changing situation (Cameron, 2009). Thus, development refers to the process of developing where an item is transformed from the state it was into something better in terms of qualities, looks, skills, experience and/or usages among other variables. According to Simonsen (1997),

development explains the process of translating into growth, continuous learning and acquisition, and improvement of one's current skills. The term career development therefore refers to the transition of an individuals' vocation or occupation from one state to another and where the latter stage is perceived to be better than the earlier phase (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2011). In another study, Coetzee and Schreuder (2016) postulate that career development is the lifelong series of activities that contribute to an individual's career exploration, choice, establishment, success and sense of fulfilment.

To sum up on the definition of career development, one can conclude that it is an ongoing process by which an individual progress through a series of stages, each which is characterised by a relatively unique set of issues, themes and tasks. The use of career development interventions in the workplace has attracted attention in the fields of business and remains important in the arena of human resources development. Within the work environment, career development refers to the set of activities and resources that a company provides to help employees enhance their careers (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2016).

Majority of job seekers wish to have occupations that increase their propensity to have self-fulfilment, duties and responsibilities that increase their job engagement and satisfaction, and which gives them more returns on their job expectations (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2016; Green et al, 2017). Literature also reveals that individuals' career development is an ongoing process where the candidates continuously plan and put their efforts towards their long-term career goals as well as life orientation (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2016). With regard to long-term work and life commitments, Schreuder and Coetzee (2011) and Miles (2015) maintain that individuals can create their own opportunities within their occupations, or their livelihood means or by making use of the available initiatives in order to fit with the kind of life they want to live. Organisations can also assist individuals (or their employees in this case) with several opportunities that enable them to grow from lower levels of the hierarchy to higher levels where they are regarded as experts (Imison, Castle-Clarke & Watson, 2016).

Career development is an essential element in an organisation and in one's own life (Cline & Kisamore, 2008). One of the arguments for career development is its ability to encourage change. The continuous dynamics in the business operations requires employees who can easily adjust to any forms of change introduced in the organisation, a situation only possible when candidates are provided with initiatives for career development (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2009). A study by Potgieter (2012) point out that employees who participate in career development have the ability to outpace their peers with regard to skills required for advancement. This is important in business operations since some organisations require their

employees to meet certain developmental levels or complete certain training programmes before they are promoted. This does not only improve the employees in terms of their skills and competences, but it also leads to loyalty with their organisation and the management in particular.

In addition to this, Converse, Pathak, DePaul-Haddock, Gotlib and Merdebone (2012) are of the view that career development is essential as it determines succession planning. Succession planning refers to the undertaking of proactive efforts to develop employees in terms of their leadership roles in order to replace the existing employees when they retire (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2016). The succession planning activities have a positive impact on the organisation because it maintains stability of the workforce and production levels (Converse et al., 2012). In addition to that, succession planning also helps employees plan for the future and more easily envision their career advancing in the same company. When employees are developed for an internal role, they are less likely to explore promotional opportunities outside the company (Converse et al., 2012). Succession planning therefore significantly affects the employees as well as the organisation.

Another impact of career development identified in literature is that it leads to high achievement (Converse et al, 2012; Lee, 2005; McDonald & Hite, 2016). Converse et al (2012) mention that with career development in place, high productivity levels will be initiated in the sense that there will be an avoidance of work environments that encourage stale employees in particular positions. Career development is very important not only for employees but also for organisations. Berber and Slavić (2014) argue that career development enables the development of individual's knowledge, skills and experiences, and if properly managed, it evolves into the organisation's success in the long term. Some employees get too comfortable in one position and are too reluctant to reach their potential. Career development therefore helps such employees to focus more on the gaps between their current abilities and those they need to acquire to succeed at the next level. Thus, if an organisation has resources to enable training of employees, success rates will be seen in the form of filling skills gaps, creation of opportunities within the workplace as well as improved job satisfaction and work engagement (Converse et al., 2012).

In addition to this, Converse et al. (2012) maintain that the world of work is becoming relatively challenging for individuals, who are increasingly responsible for discovering their own way in developing a successful career in an unstable environment. Hence, there is need for the business entities or any relevant stakeholders to provide supporting environments that support career development. Coetzee and Schreuder (2009) contend that in this changing career world,

organisations should offer training and career incentives more often to encourage employees to take their career development seriously.

While the concept of career development is essential for individuals' personal development, Potgieter (2012) noted that this is not without its drawbacks. On this note, Potgieter (2012) states that people entering the contemporary world of work are faced with several challenges such as decreased employment opportunities, diminished job security as well as fast-changing technology. Other contemporary scholars such as Coetzee and Schreuder (2016) also noted that new individuals in the job market normally do not match the required skills on the job which increases their chances of unemployment or they can work in enterprises as interns in order to gain experience. Although fast-changing technology can be advantageous to some individuals, it is a challenge to a certain extent since individuals or job seekers have increased responsibility for keeping up with an evolving body of knowledge in their field of specialisation, keeping their skills updated, and sustaining their employability especially in the environment of low job development and reduction in employability chances (Potgieter, 2012).

Literature reveals that career anchors are one of the significant concepts that play important roles in career and personal development despite the challenges discussed above. According to Schein (1990), the notion of career anchors is a combination of perceived areas of competence, motives, and values relating to professional work choices. Similarly, this term is also defined as an individual's self-perceived talents that originate from achievements in a range of work settings; self-perceived motives, needs that originate from opportunities for self-testing and self-diagnoses of their strengths and feedback from others; self-perceived attitudes and values which originates from actual encounters between self and the norms and values of the organisation (Coetzee, Roythorne & Mensele, 2016; Schein 1996).

Often, people select a career for all the wrong reasons, and find their responses to the workplace are incompatible with their true values. This situation results in feelings of unrest and discontent and in lost productivity (Chang, Jiang, Klein, & Chen, 2012). The anchors of individuals differ with situations in place. Coetzee and Schreuder (2014) are of the view that career anchors depend on situations such as individuals' constellations of self-perceived talents and abilities, self-perceived motives and needs and/or their perceived attitudes and values as reflected in diversity in workplaces or other similar situations. In the end, people tend to make use of career anchors and make decisions on their career aspirations in predictable ways (Chang et al., 2012).

While the discussion on career anchors is continuing, researchers have identified eight dimensions of career anchors which all differ depending on the situation a person is exposed to

(Chang et al., 2012; Coetzee & Schreuder, 2014; Schein, 1990; 1978; Wils, Wils & Tremblay, 2010). Technical or functional competence is one of the anchors which focus on the individual as the primary item which is motivated by the need to perform technical or functional jobs. Chang et al. (2012) also identified the general managerial competence anchor as the motivation of individuals to perform managerial tasks and decision making in the organisation. Entrepreneurial creativity as a career anchor focuses on the individuals' drive to build something that is entirely new and original (Chang et al., 2012).

On the other hand, some people pursue careers that allow them to work independently. This is referred to as autonomy and independency career anchor while other people follow the security and stability anchor where job security dominates the motives of career development (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2014). In addition to these, Schein (1990; 1978) describes the lifestyle anchor as the main motive of employees' career development. These people value work-life balance, a situation where they consider a balance between their career development and their lifestyle, social and family time. Some individuals choose a certain career due to their need to help others and make the world a better place. These fall under the career anchors entitled "service career anchors" or "dedication to cause career anchors". Regarding the pure challenge career anchor, the individuals are primarily motivated to overcome obstacles, conquer difficult tasks or problems and to overpower their competitors (Wils et al., 2010).

Considering the descriptions above, Coetzee and Schreuder (2016) opine that career anchors are important for guiding career development practices especially in today's rapidly changing world of work, which is characterised by continuous dynamics. In their study, Coetzee and Schreuder (2016) noted that employees are faced with several challenges such as retrenchments, job insecurity, and uncertainty about the future, company closures and poor human resources development. As a result, career anchors are essential in human resource management since they provide employees with a chance to take charge of their careers. Wils et al. (2010) also found that the eight career anchors discussed above can be categorised into those that focus on work values (pure challenge, entrepreneurial creativity and autonomy, and independence), self-transcendence (technical competence and service or dedication to a cause), self-enhancement (managerial competence) and conservation (security and stability and lifestyle).

To sum up, the thought of careers has changed significantly over the last two decades in line with economic and technological change. It is obvious that careers can no longer be defined in terms of attachment to any organisation but associated to the identity and values of individuals (McGuire, 2014). In light of this, the concept of career anchor is especially applicable in today's

turbulent employment context (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2014; Schein, 1996), with organisations facing challenges and opportunities because of the constantly changing world of work (Manetje & Martins, 2009). In the South African career context, employees face high unemployment rates, large-scale retrenchments, employment equity targets, fewer employment opportunities in the formal sectors, education and skill shortage, and financial and emotional stressors (Van Vuuren & Fourie, 2000).

In addition to the career anchors as motivators for career development, Kerka (1998) indicated that self-esteem is also a contributing factor to the choice of careers and development. According to Hewitt (2009), self-esteem is a sociological and psychological term which explains one's overall subjective emotional evaluation of his or her worth. In this case, individuals judge themselves based on their attitudes towards themselves as well as their personal judgement in the form of self-pride, triumph or even shame (Hewitt, 2009).

Literature reveals that self-esteem has a direct impact on the choice of employment that one chooses which imply that self-esteem and the career anchors are closely related (Assan, 2013; Brockner & Guare, 1983; Ferreira et al., 2010). Studies carried out by Orth, Robins and Trzesniewski (2010) concluded that self-esteem increases when individuals have a sense of achievement and accomplishment, and experience positive interactions with others in the workplace or decrease when they have failed to attain something, they had strong beliefs about. Similarly, positive self-esteem and confidence in managing one's own career development may help employees overcome the disappointments of career goals that are thwarted by organisational changes (Bezuidenhout, 2011). In a study conducted by Kerka (1998) and Potgieter (2012) it was concluded that people with high self-esteem can function independently, make their own decisions and are confident about accomplishing their career goals. These researchers also found that individuals with high self-esteem are generally able to make career decisions and achieve their goals. Recently, a study conducted by Clarke (2013) also found similar results, namely that highly esteemed job seekers or general workers have their career development well-planned and they have high chances of achieving their goals. Malhi (2010) also postulates that people with a high self-esteem tend to be more ambitious than those with low self-esteem. Contrary to these findings, Clarke (2013) concluded that lowly esteemed individuals have fewer achievements in their career development and personal lives as these individuals live each day as it passes. Similarly, Baumeister, Campbell, Krueger, and Vohs (2003) and Kerka (1998) found that a person with a low self-esteem is likely to achieve less and perform poorer than an individual with a high level of self-esteem. Therefore, a close analysis of self-esteem and the career anchors as variables under career development could theoretically show that these two variables are related to each other.

As a career development initiative, the career anchor is determined to be an essential factor that drives the individual's choice of careers as well as their self-fulfilment, pride and happiness (Clarke, 2013). Feldman and Bolino (1996) and Weber and Ladkin (2011) maintain that career anchors lead to the development of one's self-being as seen in their personal development, acquisition of new skills and strategic decisions in terms of career aspirations. As a result, a strong correlation exists between these developments and employees' self-esteem. Through different career anchors identified earlier in this study, a conclusion was drawn that these anchors all lead to career-related change. Research suggests that, apart from a dominant career anchor, individuals may also have secondary (second preferred anchor) and tertiary (third preferred career anchor) career anchors, which may enable them to have self-fulfilment.

Considering the preceding discussion on career development, career anchors and self-esteem, this study holds the belief that self-esteem and career anchors are related. This study will be carried out within the South African financial services industry to determine whether the relationship will be positively correlated. The financial services industry is purposively selected in this study because due to its quest to attract, retain and develop talent from diverse groups of people due to global and national skills shortages in this sector (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2014; João & Coetzee, 2011; Pato & Spira, 2008; South African Institute of Chartered Accountants [SAICA], 2008). South Africa is the second largest economy in Africa and benefits from sophisticated markets in the world and also a home to the headquarters of major multinational players in the field of financial services. According to João and Coetzee (2011), the financial services employees are in demand across the globe and there is a demand for trained professionals across financial services. Therefore, a strong focus on career development individuals may improve productivity across the many platforms where financial services are offered.

This research study as such aims to contribute to the disciplines of human resource management. The findings may potentially inform the career development of employees in the South African financial services industry.

In conclusion, there are indications that there is a link between the constructs of self-esteem and career anchors; however, a lack of literature exists on the relationship between self-esteem and career anchors, specifically within the South African financial context. Therefore, the study of this nature is deemed necessary.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

There is concern about career development as it affects employees' development as well as the overall performance of the organisation. Career development is affected by many factors, but this study focuses on two constructs: self-esteem and career anchors. Since the research is carried on the basis that the relationship between individuals' self-esteem and career anchors is important, the theoretical background discussed above has shown that the understanding of this relationship may potentially contribute to the overall career development of individuals employed in the South African financial services industry. Theoretically, secondary data shows that the theoretical models do not clarify the relationship between self-esteem and career anchors in one integrated study (Abessolo, Rossier & Hirschi, 2017; Wils, Wils & Tremblay, 2014). Further, the financial services industry in South Africa have also been found to be lacking career development initiatives that focus on enhancement of self-esteem and career anchors (Ndzube, 2013; Oluwajodu et al, 2015). All the same, the nature of the relationship between self-esteem and career anchors and the implications of this relationship on career development for individuals' in the financial services industry is vague. Consequently, it appears that research on the relationship between self-esteem and career anchors will make a significant contribution to the discipline of human resource management, particularly regarding career development practices. Therefore, this study will be carried out to provide important insights in the field of human resources in incorporating self-esteem and career anchors in career development support programmes.

General research question:

The general research question of this study was to establish if there was a relationship between individuals' self-esteem and career anchors; and secondly to determine whether self-esteem significantly predict career anchors.

From the above, the research questions as set out below were formulated in terms of the literature review and empirical study:

1.2.1 Research questions with regard to the literature review

The following research questions were formulated:

- **Research question 1:** How are the constructs of self-esteem and career anchors conceptualised in the literature?

- **Research question 2:** What is the nature of the theoretical relationship between the constructs of self-esteem and career anchors?
- **Research question 3:** What are the implications for career development practices?

1.2.2 Research questions with regard to the empirical study

In terms of the empirical study, the following research questions were addressed:

- **Research question 1:** What is the nature, direction and magnitude of the statistical relationship between self-esteem and career anchors, as manifested in a sample of respondents in the financial services industry?
- **Research question 2:** Does self-esteem significantly predict career anchors?
- **Research question 3:** What are the recommendations for career development practices and future research in relation to self-esteem, career anchors and demographical groups in the financial services industry?

1.3 RESEARCH AIMS

From the above research questions, the following research aims were formulated:

1.3.1 General aim

The general aim of the study was to establish the relationship between individuals' self-esteem and career anchors; and secondly to determine whether self-esteem significantly predict career anchors.

1.3.2 Specific aim

The following aims were formulated for the literature review and empirical study.

1.3.2.1 Literature review

In terms of the literature review the specific aims were:

- **Research aim 1:** To explore the constructs of self-esteem and career anchors as conceptualised in the literature.
- **Research aim 2:** To determine the nature of the theoretical relationship between the constructs of self-esteem and career anchors.
- **Research aim 3:** To explore the implications for career development practices implications.

1.3.2.2 Empirical study

In terms of the empirical study, the specific aims were:

- **Research aim 1:** To explore the nature, direction and magnitude of the statistical relationship between self-esteem and career anchors as manifested in a sample of respondents in the South African financial service industry.
- **Research aim 2:** To determine whether self-esteem significantly predict career anchors.
- **Research aim 3:** To formulate recommendations for the career development practices within the financial services industry and future research.

1.4 POTENTIAL VALUE ADDED

The objective of this study focused on the relationship between self-esteem and career anchors. The study is very important for stimulating the career development of employees in the South African financial services industry. As noted in the background information discussed above, financial services employees play an important role in the entire liquidity of the country. The financial performance in South Africa, particularly in the current global financial crisis that have been in existence since 2008, is dependent on the financial services employees. Their self-esteem as well as overall performance depends on their careers and several anchors play important roles in enhancing this relationship. In addition, this research is a starting point in exploring a possible relationship between self-esteem and career anchors. If a significant

relationship is found, then human resources practitioners can suggest strategies to increase self-esteem and channel career anchor preferences in order to assist individuals with career development and resultantly positively influence organisational performance.

This study may prove useful on a theoretical, empirical and practical level:

1.4.1 Contribution on a theoretical level

On a theoretical level, this study may establish valuable input because of the potential relationship between individuals' self-esteem and career anchors. If a relationship is established, then the findings should prove useful in career development of individuals in the financial services industry. Furthermore, the research results could contribute to the body of knowledge relating to self-esteem and career anchors that influence career development.

1.4.2 Contribution on an empirical level

On an empirical level, the study may contribute by explaining the relationship between self-esteem and career anchors as manifested in a sample of respondents in the South African financial services industry. In addition, the study may highlight whether self-esteem significantly predict career anchors. In light of the current background recommendations for career development practices and future research in relation to self-esteem and career anchors in the financial service may be formulated.

It is believed that this study may potentially provide a new understanding of career development of individuals in financial services industry. Individuals may develop an awareness of how their self-esteem relate to their career anchors which represents a unique combination of perceived career competence, motives, and values.

Therefore, understanding the relationship between the constructs of self-esteem and career anchors, may potentially contribute to interventions concerned with the career development of individuals employed in the South African financial services industry.

1.4.3 Contribution on a practical level

On a practical level, it is hoped that the study increases a better understanding of the constructs self-esteem and career anchors which may positively or negatively influence the career development of individuals, then the results would be substantial enough to pursue the

persistent of this study. This could be used and may contribute to the disciplines of human resource management when dealing with career development of individuals.

Another positive outcome may be that human resource practitioners could be more aware of these factors influencing their career development practices. The findings may also be useful to future researchers interested in studying these variables. The research results found may inspire career development of individuals employed in the South African financial service industry.

This study may be useful due to the significant relationship found between the constructs of self-esteem and career anchors. The potential contribution will provide important insights in the field of human resources in incorporating career anchors in career development support programmes.

This research aims to propose recommendations for career development practices and future research in the South African financial service industry.

1.5 THE RESEARCH MODEL

The research model of Mouton and Marais (1996) was utilised in this study. The model incorporates the five dimensions of social science research, namely the sociological, ontological, teleological, epistemological and methodological dimensions, and to systematise them within the framework of the research process. The five dimensions are aspects of one and the same process, namely research.

Kuada (2012) illustrates that social science identify the research process that feeds into each other as illustrated below:

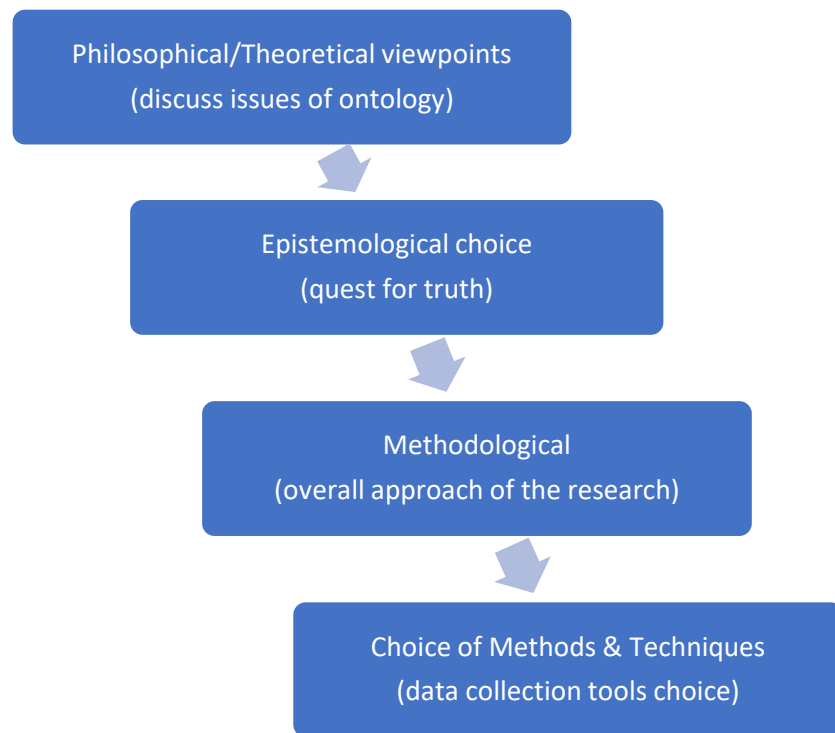


Figure 1. 1: Research Process (Kuada, 2012, p.58)

1.6 MARKET OF INTELLECTUAL RESOURCES

The market of intellectual resources refers to the collection of beliefs that have a direct impact on the valid states of scientific statements (Mouton & Marais, 1996; Shakina & Barajas, 2014). For the purpose of this study, the following was presented: the theoretical models, meta-theoretical statements, conceptual descriptions about self-esteem and career anchors, central hypothesis and theoretical and methodological assumptions.

1.6.1 Theoretical Models

The theoretical models utilised were based on the following:

The literature review on self-esteem was presented from the specific theories of Maslow's (1970) and Roger's (1959, 1963) conceptualisation of self-esteem, classical and contemporary viewpoints on self-esteem and related constructs. The Culture-Free Self-Esteem of Battle (1992) applied to this research. The underlying strength of this model is its relevance to the work

environment. The literature review on career anchors was presented from the perspective of Career Orientation Inventory (COI) of Schein (2006), and career development was discussed.

1.6.2 Meta-theoretical statements

The meta-theoretical statements were presented in the discipline of human resources management:

1.6.2.1 Human Resources Management

Human resources management is involved in developing employees (Bergh & Theron, 2009) and career development is important for both employer and employee and is the key element in high commitment human resources in defining performance expectations and in providing employees with performance objectives and the incentives for future employment opportunities (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2016). Human resources management addresses issues such as recruitment and selection, performance management, retention, promotion, transfers, terminations, and training and development of people in order to achieve individual and organisational goals (Landy & Conte, 2013).

The current study has relevance in the field of human resources management because career development activities such as performance management, training, mentoring and skills development are combined with the organisations' own attempt to recruit, develop and move its employees according to its own short-term and long-term human capital needs (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2016). The study is rooted in the career development literature and theories as it attempts to establish how self-esteem and career anchors influence each other in the course of the development of one's career.

1.6.3 Conceptual descriptions

The following conceptual definitions were relevant for discussions in this research:

(a) Career Development

According to Rothmann and Cooper (2015), career development includes career planning and the implementation of career plans through education, training, job search and acquisitions, and work experience. From the organisation's viewpoint, career development is the process of growth of employees through assessment, planned training activities and planned job

assignments. Therefore, career development involves both personal career planning and organisation career management (Armstrong & Taylor, 2014).

(b) Self esteem

According to Rothwell (2013), self-esteem is the evaluative element of one's self-perception, self-appraisal or perception of self-worth, attractiveness and social competence. Cervone and Pervin (2013), concur that a person's overall self-worth and judgment of worthiness is the result of one's self-esteem. Self-esteem is also referred to as a positive sense of self-worth and that is an important means for coping. This means that individuals with high self-esteem are more likely to adopt effective coping strategies when encountering stress than individuals with low self-esteem. Positive self-esteem is boosted by accomplishing a difficult task and gaining the respect from others (Landy & Conte, 2013).

The construct self-esteem was discussed in terms of the theoretical background on self-esteem provided by Battle (1992) and comprises a number of facets or dimensions. Battle (1992) differentiates these self-esteem dimensions as general, social, and personal self-esteem for adults. In this study, the construct of self-esteem was measured by the Culture-Free-Self-Esteem Inventories for Adults (CFSEI 2-AD), developed by Battle (1992).

(c) Career anchors

Schein (1996) defines a career anchor as an important aspect of individual's self-concept including individual's talents and skills, values, and their career needs (McGuire, 2014). Schein (1990, 1996) views career anchors as an important meta-capacity in contemporary career development (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2014). As such, career anchors represent goal-directed intentions and needs driven by values and motives that the individual is not willing to give up in the pursuit of the career (Marshall & Bonner, 2003; Schein, 1996; 2013).

The construct of career anchors was discussed in terms of the theoretical background on career anchors provided by Schein (1996, 2006). In this study, the construct of career anchors was measured by the Career Orientations Inventory (COI) of Schein (2006).

The COI measures the level of individual self-perceived career anchor preferences (Schein, 1990). Examples of career anchors are technical/functional, managerial, autonomy/independence; security/stability; entrepreneurial; service; pure challenge and lifestyle.

1.7 THE EMPIRICAL STUDY

In the empirical study, the constructs of self-esteem and career anchors were approached from the post-positivist paradigm. Post-positivism is a philosophy of truth that is closely related to positivism (Schutt, 2012).

The post-positivist paradigm holds the belief that there is an empirical reality, but individuals' understanding of it is restricted by its complexity and by the biases and other limitations of researchers (Schutt, 2012).

The assumptions of the post-positivist research paradigm are as follows (Tracy, 2013):

- Ontologically (the nature of reality), the assumption is that post-positivist is single, true and capable of being understood.
- Post-positivist embraces epistemology that is true and objective. If there is a truth to be known, the personal background and biases of the researcher should not affect that truth.
- Post-positivist aims at making predictions based on past observations and a reflecting representation. The researcher must be objective and proficiently use research and measuring instruments that will not harm the research findings.
- Post-positivist employs methods (strategies for gathering, collecting and analysing data) that are viewed as value-free; multiple methods triangulated to ensure correctness and validity.
- Post-positivist focuses at building knowledge that is unbiased and creating a sustainable behaviour that can be measured, checked or coded.
- Post-positivist adopts theory creation to increase researchers' efficiency to propose and test scientific explanations on the basis of existing knowledge.

The post-positivist research paradigm was relevant to the current empirical study as it aspires objective reality and building knowledge that is unbiased. This paradigm embraces procedures for developing objective knowledge that can be considered reliable, appropriate and effective but which are never watertight and so are open to amendment and improvement (Wilson, 2013).

The term paradigm is attributed to Kuhn (1970) who argued that research is characterised by an understanding of the kind of phenomenon to be studied, constructive questions to be asked,

how researchers should structure their approach to answering their research questions, and how the results should be interpreted (Kuada, 2012).

Paradigm is a model or frame of reference through which to observe and understand what is being researched (Babbie, 2013).

1.8 CENTRAL HYPOTHESIS

A hypothesis is the researcher's best guess about the outcome of a study; thus hypothesis is a theoretical answer (Spector, 2012). According to Antonius (2013), a research hypothesis is helpful to suggest a likely answer to a research question.

The central hypotheses of the study were as follows:

There is a statistically significant relationship between self-esteem and career anchors. Moreover, self-esteem significantly predict career anchors.

1.9 THEORETICAL ASSUMPTIONS

Based on the literature review, the following theoretical assumptions were addressed in this study:

- There is a need for basic research that seeks to isolate individuals' self-esteem and career anchors relating to career development.
- Self-esteem development and the development of career anchors are a process, not an end product.
- The constructs of self-esteem and career anchors is multi-dimensional and can be modified by external factors.

1.10 METHODOLOGICAL ASSUMPTIONS

Methodological assumptions are beliefs concerning the nature of social science and scientific research (Mouton & Marais, 1996; Penalva, 2014). According to Punch (2014), methodological theory is about methods based on paradigms, and involves beliefs. Methods of inquiry are based on assumptions – assumptions about the nature of the reality being considered,

assumption about what forms knowledge of this reality, and assumptions about suitable methods of building knowledge of this reality.

1.10.1 Sociological dimension

The sociological dimension describes scientific research as a mutual or collaborative activity (Davies, et al., 2016; Mouton & Marais, 1996; Scotland, 2012). The sociological dimension adapts to the fundamentals of the sociological research ethic, which draws on the research community for sources of theory development. Within the limits of the sociological dimension, research is experimental or non-experimental, analytical and exact, since the issues that are being studied are subject to quantitative research and analysis (Bhattacharjee, 2012; Mouton & Marais, 1996). This research focused on the quantitative analysis of variables and concepts that will be described on empirical research and research results.

1.10.2 Ontological dimension

According to Mouton and Marais (1996) and Scotland (2012), the ontological dimension of research encompasses that which is investigated in reality. It relates to the study of human activities and institutions whose behaviour can be measured (Mouton & Marais, 1996; Scotland, 2012). Ontology refers to what reality is like and what is there to be known (Punch, 2014). This research measured properties of the constructs of self-esteem and career anchors.

1.10.3 Teleological dimension

Mouton and Marais (1996) and Scotland (2012) explain that the teleological dimension proposes that research should be systematic in nature and goal directed. It is significant to state the problem being explored and relate it to the research goals. The research goals are unambiguous in this research, namely, to assess the relationship between the self-esteem and career anchors.

Furthermore, in practical terms the teleological dimension of this research project aims to further the field of human resources management by contributing on the recommendations for career development practices.

1.10.4 Epistemological dimension

According to Mouton and Marais (1996) and Scotland (2012), this dimension relates to the quest for truth. Walliman (2011) mentions that the epistemological dimension is about the theory of knowledge, especially about its validation and the methods used. Often used in connection with one's epistemological standpoint – how one sees and makes sense of the world (Walliman, 2011). A primary aim of research in the social sciences is to generate valid findings that approximate reality as closely as possible (Mouton & Marais, 1996). Epistemology seeks to understand the relationship between research and reality (Punch, 2014). This research attempts to achieve this truth through a good research design and the achievement of reliable and valid results.

1.10.5 Methodological dimension

Methodological theory is about methods, and the philosophical assumptions which may inspire any set of research methods (Punch, 2014). This study presented a quantitative, exploratory research in the form of a literature review on self-esteem and career anchors as well as quantitative research in the empirical study.

1.11 RESEARCH DESIGN

Research design gives structure to research a study, allowing investigators to perform a scientific research on any phenomenon of interest (Landy & Conte, 2013). According to Spector (2012), the research design is an important part of a research study. The aim of planning a research project is to maximise validity of the results (Gravetter & Forzano, 2018; Mouton & Marais, 1996). The key concepts on research design was discussed with reference to the types of research conducted, followed by a discussion of validity and reliability.

1.11.1 Exploratory Research

According to Nardi (2014), exploratory research is conducted to explore what is happening on a particular topic of interest from a relatively unknown research topic. Babbie and Benaquisto (2010) maintain that exploratory research is an attempt to develop an initial rough understanding of some observable fact. This approach usually occurs to gain new insights. Exploratory research was conducted to:

- satisfy the researcher's interest and desire for better understanding of the constructs under investigation
- test the viability of the study and learn the language and concepts used by those who will be studied
- develop methods for collecting information for a proposed study

Exploratory research has been designed to establish the needs and goals of a particular organisation in preparation for the study (Nardi, 2014). This research is exploratory in that it compares various theoretical perspectives on self-esteem and career anchors.

1.11.2 Descriptive Research

Descriptive research is designed for collecting information (Nardi, 2014). According to Babbie and Benaquisto (2010), description means to report precisely on the characteristics of some population. Its purpose is to describe situations or events and the goal is to describe issues accurately and precisely. Punch (2014), states that description focuses on what is the case and using data to draw a picture of a situation, events or individuals.

Descriptive research is applicable in the literature review with reference to the conceptualization of the constructs self-esteem and career anchors. In the empirical study, descriptive research will include means, standard deviations and Cronbach Alphas in terms of the self-esteem and career anchors constructs.

1.11.3 Explanatory Research

Explanatory research is the breakthrough and exposure of relationship among different aspects of the phenomenon under study which tends to answer the question of *why* and explain why things are the way they are (Babbie & Benaquisto, 2010). Nardi (2014) agree that this kind of a research is done to explain relationships, to uncover the reasons "why" or "how" social phenomena occur among respondents. The researcher's desire is to formulate a conclusion on the relationship between the constructs of self-esteem and career anchors. This research therefore aims to execute the requirements for explanatory research as outlined above.

1.11.4 Validity

Validity is a complex term with many meanings which are: the validity of a measuring instrument, the validity of a research design or internal validity and the truth status of a research report

(Punch, 2014). Validity is the interpretation given to the meaning of a measure (Spector, 2012). According to Riggio (2013), validity is a concept referring to the accuracy of a measurement instrument and its ability to make correct assumptions about the norm. The research design needed to be both internally and externally valid. Internal validity is the extent to which unrelated or confounding variables are removed from a study and external validity extent to which research results obtained will generalise to other work settings (Riggio, 2013).

1.11.4.1 Validity in terms of the literature review

The validity of the literature was guaranteed by using literature that is relevant and currently up to date in terms of the research topic, problem statement and aims. The accuracy of inferences made was used to address whether a measure accurately represents what was intended to be measured (Landy & Conte, 2013).

Every attempt was made to search for and make use of the most recent literature sources, although both classical and contemporary mainstream research publications may be referred to, because of their relevance to the conceptualisation of the constructs that are relevant to this research.

1.11.4.2 Validity in terms of the empirical study

To ensure validity in the empirical research the use of suitable and standardised measuring instrument was utilised and these instruments measure what is supposed to measure. In criterion-related validity, an indicator was compared with another measure of the same construct in which the researcher has confidence, in order to ensure accurate prediction of scores on the relevant criterion (Punch, 2014).

Furthermore, the validity of the research design and the truth status of the research report were ensured; construct validity focused on how well a measure conforms to theoretical expectations (Punch, 2014). Finally, an IBM Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) statistics for windows is a reliable tool that was used for statistical analysis of data to guarantee authenticity in the empirical study.

1.11.5 Reliability

Reliability is the consistency of a measurement across repeated observations of a variable for the same subject measurements of the same variable (Spector, 2012). Landy and Conte (2013)

concur that reliability is consistency or stability of measure. According to Riggio (2013), reliability is the consistency of a measurement instrument or its stability over time. The reliability of the study assured that if someone else takes measure again at a different time, the value will remain the same (Landy & Conte, 2013).

The research context is respected at all times. Reliability of data is the consistency of measurement comprises of two aspects such as, consistency over time – test-retest reliability and consistency within indicators – internal consistency reliability (Punch, 2014).

In order to ensure reliability within this study, a representative sample was used. In addition, all instruments in this study proved reliable in previous research studies.

1.11.6 Unit of analysis

In social science research, there is almost no perimeter to what or who can be studied. The most common units of analysis are individual people, groups, organisations and social work of arts such as books, movies and/or paintings (Babbie, 2013). The unit of analysis aims on set of objects such as individuals, organisations or events on which the research is focussed (Gray, 2014).

In this study, the units of analysis were individuals permanently employed in the South African financial services industry.

1.11.7 Research Variables

Variables are the basic building blocks of a design (Spector, 2012). According to Riggio (2013), variables are elements measured in research investigations. Spector (2012) maintains that a variable is an attribute of people that can vary or take on different values. The constructs can be either independent or dependent variable and variables are characteristics that are measurable (Gray, 2014).

This research aimed to establish whether there is a significant relationship between self-esteem (independent variable) and career anchors (dependent variable). Independent variables are those that are manipulated by the researcher, whilst dependent variables are those that are assessed in response to the independent variables. Punch (2014) refer to independent variables as the most common substitute term for cause and dependent variables as the most common substitute term for effect.

In this study the criterion data of the Culture Free Self-Esteem Inventory (Battle, 1992) and Career Orientations Inventory (COI) of Schein (2006) were used. In an effort to determine a relationship between these variables data was gathered by means of the measuring instruments indicated above.

1.11.8 Delimitations

The study was restricted within the field of human resources to a sample of employees in a South African financial service organisation. Since the study was limited only to participants from a South African financial services industry, the outcome cannot be generalised to other occupational contexts or work environments. The research was conducted in English and limited its focus to the relationship between self-esteem and career anchors. If such a relationship is indeed identified, the groundwork information could be useful to future researchers in addressing other issues relating to the constructs of self-esteem and career anchors. The selected research approach was not intended to establish the cause and effect of the relationship but is purely an attempt to explore whether such a relationship does in fact exist and whether self-esteem significantly predict career anchors.

1.11.9 Ethical Consideration

Bergh (2011) defines research ethics as the study of moral values and behaviour. Ethics was applied on all stages of the research from conducting research to data collection. Nardi (2014) points that before the study begin, it is crucial to reflect on the ethics of doing research about the chosen topic, measures you intend to use, sample of people or institutions you plan to survey. Prior to the research process, the researcher familiarise herself with UNISA ethics policy. The research study was carried out in strict accordance with the Policy for Research Ethics of the University of South Africa. The code of ethics is designed to ensure that the researcher adheres to all ethical requirements:

- Permission to conduct the research was obtained from the hosting company and ethical clearance was obtained from UNISA.
- Participants were not physically or mentally harmed
- Right to privacy was respected
- No use of inappropriate statistics to alter the findings
- Confidentiality and anonymity of participants was honoured
- Volunteers for research participated in their own free will
- Informed consent was obtained from the participant

1.12 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

According to Bergh (2011), research involves scientific inquiry that includes finding, exploring or validating psychological knowledge using different methods of obtaining and processing info to reach certain findings.

This research was conducted in two phases. The first phase was the literature review and the second phase were the empirical study, each consisting of different steps. Figure 1.2 below provides an overview of the different phases.

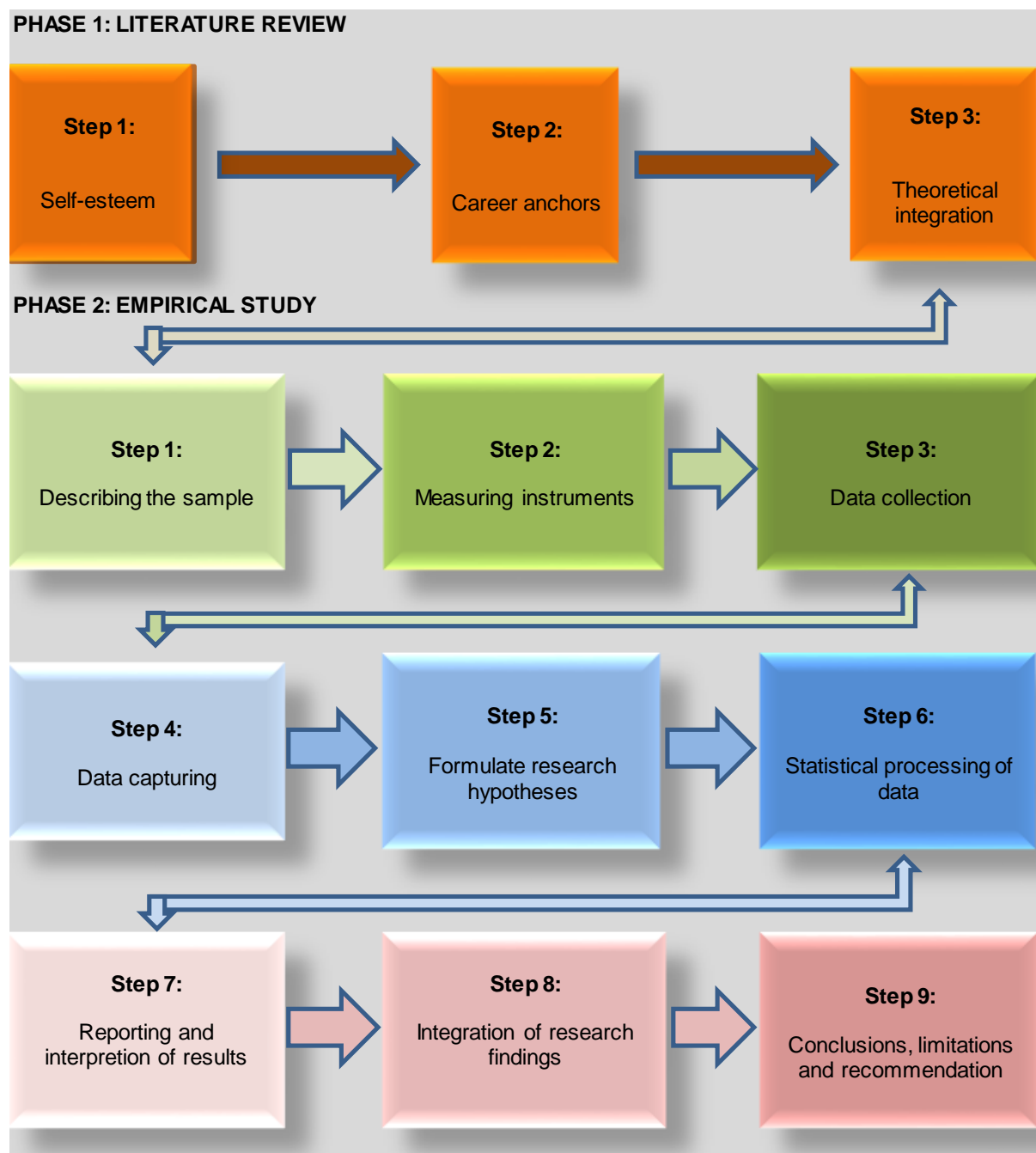


Figure 1. 2: Flow diagram of the research method (Source: Author's own compilation)

1.12.1 Phase 1: Literature review

The study followed the three steps below in order to address the research aims of the literature review:

Step 1: **Addresses research aim 1:** To explore the constructs of self-esteem and career anchors as conceptualised in the literature.

Step 2: **Addresses research aim 2:** To determine the nature of the theoretical relationship between the constructs of self-esteem and career anchors.

Step 3: **Addresses research aim 3:** To explore the implications for career development practice.

1.12.2 Phase 2: Empirical study

Quantitative research is empirical research where the data is in the form of numbers, therefore quantitative data focuses on numerical measures, and the information is in the form of numbers (Punch, 2014). The empirical study is the research methods in which data is collected (Gray, 2014). The study was conducted in the South African financial services industry to achieve the empirical research aims followed by nine steps:

Step 1: Determination and description of the sample (research participants)

A sample was drawn from the population of employees employed in a financial service organisation. The population and sample is further discussed in Chapter 4.

Step 2: Choosing and motivating the measuring instruments

The three measuring instruments that were utilised include, demographical questionnaire, culture free self-esteem inventory for adults (CFSEI 2-AD), developed by Battle (1992) and career orientations inventory (COI), developed by Schein (2006). These instruments are discussed in Chapter 4.

Step 3: Administration of the measuring instruments

The data was collected using the quantitative approach and survey methodology was utilised. The ethical consideration was considered and is discussed in Chapter 4.

Step 4: Scoring of measurement instrument

All responses received were collated and captured on a Microsoft Excel Spreadsheet format. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), version 24 (IBM Corp., 2015) was used to analyse the data. More information on this step is discussed in Chapter 4.

Step 5: Formulation of the research hypotheses

The research hypotheses were formulated to achieve the aims of the study and is discussed in Chapter 4.

Step 6: Statistical processing of the data

The statistical procedure applicable for this study is discussed in chapter 4.

Step 7: Reporting and interpreting the results

Data analysis and findings were reported in the form of tables, graphs and diagrams to ensure that the interpretation of the findings is conveyed clearly and efficiently. The report and interpretation of the results is discussed in Chapter 5.

Step 8: Integration of the research findings

The research findings are integrated with the theoretical and empirical literature in Chapter 5.

Step 9: Formulation of research conclusions, limitations and recommendations

The conclusions are discussed based on the integration of the research findings with the theory. The limitations of the research are discussed, and the recommendations are made in terms of the relationships between self-esteem and career anchors as constructs used to drive career development. This step is discussed in chapter 6.

1.13 CHAPTER LAYOUT

The chapters will be presented as follows:

Chapter 1: Scientific overview of the research

Chapter 2: Career development in the workplace

Chapter 3: Self-Esteem and Career Anchors

Chapter 4: Research methodology

Chapter 5: Research results

Chapter 6: Conclusions, limitations and recommendations.

1.14 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The background and motivation for the research, the research problem, research questions and aims, potential value add of the study, central hypothesis, paradigm perspectives, and the research design and research methodology of the study were discussed in this chapter. The motivation for this study is based on the fact that no known research has been conducted on the relationship between individuals' self-esteem and career anchors in a context of career development within South African financial services industry in a single study.

Chapter 2 addresses the meta-theoretical context of the study which is career development in the workplace

CHAPTER 2: META-THEORETICAL CONTEXT OF THE STUDY: CAREER DEVELOPMENT IN THE WORKPLACE

The objective of this chapter is to provide context on the meta-theoretical foundation that will assist a better understanding of individuals' self-esteem and career anchors as aspects of their career development. The chapter will first establish the meaning of career development in a working environment and contributions of career development. The study is very important for stimulating the career development of employees in the South African financial services industry.

2.1 CAREER DEVELOPMENT IN A WORKING ENVIRONMENT

Career development within the work environment refers to the set of activities and resources that a company provides to help employees enhance their careers (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2006). Career development can be defined as the combination of psychological, sociological, educational, physical, economic and chance factors that combine to influence the nature and significance of work in the total lifespan of any given individual (Lewis & Zibarras, 2013; NCDA, 2003). From the perspective of the organisation, career development is the process of guiding the placement, movement and growth of employees through assessment, planned training activities and planned job assignments (Armstrong & Taylor, 2014). Mondy and Martocchio (2016) points out that with career development, the organisation identifies paths and activities for individual employees as they develop. Therefore, career development includes both personal career planning and organisational career management (Armstrong & Taylor, 2014). Career development encompasses career planning and the implementation of career plans by means of education, training, job search and acquisitions, and work experiences (Armstrong & Taylor, 2014). Career development is an ongoing process of planning and directed action toward personal work and life goals (McDonald & Hite, 2016). Career development is the outcome of the individual's career planning and the organisation's provision of support and opportunities, ideally a collaborative process which focuses on both the individual and the organisation (Muller et al., 2015; Ronn, 2010; Simonsen, 1997).

Career development is a process requiring individuals and organisations to create a partnership that enhances employees' knowledge, skills, competencies, and attitudes required for their current and future job assignments (Gilley, Eggland, & Gilley, 2002).

Furthermore, Mondy and Martocchio (2016) indicate that career development is a formal approach used by the organisation to ensure that employees with proper qualifications and experiences are available when needed. The immediate superior of the employee is of cardinal importance in providing support, advice, and feedback, but the employee is ultimately responsible for his or her own career development (Nel, et al., 2011). Employees proceed from one job to another in a certain sequence. It is generally accepted that the right sequence of jobs contributes materially to career development (Nel, et al., 2011). The concept of careers has changed significantly in the last two decades in line with economic and technological change. It is obvious that careers can no longer be defined in terms of attachment to any organisation but associated to the identity and values of individuals (McGuire, 2014).

2.1.1 Careers

A career is one of the most important elements in one's life (Pieters, 2011). In the contemporary work context, people's careers do not necessarily constitute one type of work in one organisation but can include three or four careers in the span of their working lives (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2010). An individual may seek an employer and job that offer the opportunity to use his or her particular knowledge, skills and attributes, that offer a desired work environment, that satisfy a geographic preference that present the opportunity for leisure-time activity, that take into account the availability of transport, and/or that present a personal challenge (Pieters, 2011). The thought of careers has changed significantly in the last two decades in line with economic and technological change. Clearly, careers are not defined solely according to organisation's attachment but also related to individual's identity and values (McGuire, 2014).

Hall and Las Heras (2012) reinforced the idea that, in some cultures, work and career are closely tied to individual identity and help define one's sense of life purpose. It means to fulfil one's potential. The idea of meaning and work is also revealed in how employees determine their career goals (McDonald & Hite, 2016). Hall and Las Heras (2012) observed that careers can be seen from two different perspectives: the subjective, derived from an individual sense of meaningfulness regarding a career; and the objective, focusing on what others often identify as key indicators of success such as promotions and pay. Managing one's career now becomes the responsibility of the individual rather than of the organisation (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2010).

2.1.2 Traditional Careers

Traditional careers focus only on progressing within one organisation (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996), and the organisation assumed sole responsibility for taking charge of the individual's

career (Ferreira, 2012). Valcour, Bailyn and Quijada (2007) posit that the traditional career is characterised by a great commitment to the occupational world, along with a striving for upward mobility and accomplishment of external markers of success. Other contemporary scholars such as McDonald, Brown and Bradley (2005) also noted that traditional career is characterised by vertical success, climbing the corporate ladder and getting monetary rewards. From the traditional career perspective, ambition for career success in the form of status, incomes and upward advancement are both normal and decent (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996).

Traditional careers relate to upward mobility in a single hierarchy and have been replaced by boundaryless careers that are changeable, overwhelming, and generally draw in horizontal mobility across organisational boundaries (Arthur et al., 1999; Arthur & Rousseau, 1996; Colakoglu, 2011; DeFillippi & Arthur, 1994). Career progression can be recognised in that modern careers are complicated, boundaryless and horizontal rather than the traditional career, which specify climbing the corporate, stability, and lifetime loyalty to one organisation (Savickas, 2013; Schreuder & Coetzee, 2016). As such, traditional careers are not recognised as appropriate in giving direction for career interventions in the turbulent contemporary career environment (Savickas, 2013). Most people experienced career transitions and moved away from the traditional career into a new way of doing things, referred to as the boundaryless or protean career (Ferreira, 2012).

Careers are evolving in the 21st century. The four career perspectives (protean, boundaryless, organisational and kaleidoscope careers) suggest ways that human resource practitioners might help individuals develop their careers. The career perspectives help individuals to understand how careers are evolving in the twenty-first century. Additionally, the four career perspectives provide practitioners with career development tools that will assist individuals develop their careers (McDonald & Hite, 2016).

(a) Protean Career

The protean career argues that career development is directed and controlled by the individual. It is driven by internal values and the individual self-directs his/her career (Briscoe, Henagan, Burton, & Murphy, 2012). In protean career, psychological success, rather than position and income, is the measure of performance. Work values centre around growth and freedom rather than advancement and power. In addition, self-esteem is more significant than approval from others (Hall, 2013). These factors suggest that personal development becomes central to career development (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2016). Therefore, protean career focuses on an individual.

Hall (2013) describes the protean career as a process which the individual is in charge of managing his/her own career.

(b) Boundaryless Career

The boundaryless career is characterized as one of independence from rather than dependence on traditional career arrangements (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996; McDonald & Hite, 2016). The career does not rely on traditional organisational structures; rather, it is independent of these potential constraints. Boundaryless careers include both physical mobility (e.g. moving across jobs, occupations countries, etc.) and psychological mobility, which is the capacity to move as seen through the mind of the career actor (Sullivan & Arthur, 2006). In the boundaryless career the individual has self-ownership of his/her career (Peiperl & Arthur, 2000). Like protean careers, boundaryless careers focuses on an individual (Briscoe et al., 2012). Individuals manage their careers in relatively autonomous fashion between jobs, companies and professions, and their employment value is increased (Cadin, Bailly-Bender & Saint-Giniez, 2000).

(c) Kaleidoscope Career

The kaleidoscope career develops and evolves in patterns; it focuses on both individual and the organisation (Briscoe et al., 2012). Mainiero and Sullivan (2005) proposed three parameters as important in influencing career decisions. This include, authenticity (making choices that allow one to be true to oneself); balance (making choices that allow an individual to balance both work and non-work responsibilities) and challenge (making choices that provide interesting and stimulating work, and opportunities to advance in one's career and continually develop).

(d) Organisational Career

The organisational career occurs within an organisation and is jointly managed by the employee and the organisation (Briscoe et al., 2012). Clarke (2013) explained that there are indications that over time the organisational career has evolved into a new hybrid form which combines aspects of the old bureaucratic career, while incorporating other dimensions more commonly associated with the new careers. Clarke (2013) elaborated on potential characteristics of the new organisational career including:

- Continuity in employment, long-term rather than lifetime employment
- Flexibility and adaptability on the part of employees to handle change
- Medium-term tenure across different roles
- Loyalty to organisation and outside groups

- Jointly managed career (both organisational and self)
- Development to meet both organisational and individual needs
- Career focus that is both internal and external to the organisation
- Career path is a spiral progression
- Relational employment contract
- Both objective and subjective measures of success.

In conclusion, protean, boundaryless and kaleidoscope careers were developed to address the radically changing career environment. On the other hand, organisational career has a long history, scholars and practitioners are focusing on new ways to configure it to reflect changing times.

2.1.3 Development

Development means growth, continuous acquisitions and application of one's skills (McDonald & Hite, 2016). The development opportunities are likely to be planned at a strategic level and paid for by the organisation (Lewis & Zibarras, 2013). The four concepts including success, competencies, transitions and identity have significance to any individual interested in developing his or her own career.

(a) Career success

Career success has been defined as a positive outcome of a career experience and as a process of achieving work-related goals (Arthur, Khapova, & Wilderom, 2005; Mirvis & Hall, 1996). Career success involves two distinct components: subjective career success which is internally focused, meaning it is an individual's unique and personal assessment of his or her career, and objective career success which include indicators of achievement that are more tangible and externally focused (Arthur et al., 2005; Heslin, 2005). Subjective career success has most commonly been conceived as a sign of career satisfaction (Heslin, 2005), although other judgments like the value of individual's human capital and self-appraisals of one's efficacy and capabilities would also be considered measures (Stumpf & Tymon, 2012).

Common indicators of objective career success include salary, promotions and occupational status – all of which can be assessed by others (Ng, Eby, Sorensen, & Feldman, 2005). Dries (2011) suggested that both employees and employers need to broaden their perspective of what career success means. This broadening will enhance employees' feelings of authenticity, which will lead to a more diverse productive workforce (Dries, 2011).

(b) Career competencies

Career competencies develop over time and are important for both individuals working to acquire the necessary capabilities to facilitate their careers and to organisations attempting to attract and develop talent (Francis-Smythe, Haase, Thomas, & Steele, 2012). DeFillippi and Arthur (1994) and Lertwannawit, Serirat and Pholpantin (2009) offer three major career competencies: know why, know how, and know whom. Know-why competencies focus on self-awareness; in other words, it is an understanding of one's interests and values. According to DeFillippi and Arthur (1994) and Lertwannawit, et al (2009) the know why competencies answer the question "Why?" as it relates to career motivation, personal meaning and identification. Know-how competencies are the job-related knowledge and career-relevant skills that career agents possess and that contribute to organisations and individuals' capabilities (DeFillippi & Arthur, 1994; McDonald & Hite, 2016). Training is a common initiative offered to enhance the know-how competencies (McDonald & Hite, 2016). Knowing-whom competencies are those career-related networks and contacts that benefit organisational communication and individuals' learning and marketability (DeFillippi & Arthur, 1994; Eby, Butts & Lockwood, 2003). There is evidence suggesting that developing the know-whom competencies can enhance one's career. These three competencies have been found to be predictors of perceived career success and perceived marketability (Eby et al., 2003). Colakoglu (2011) found that two of the competencies – knowing why and knowing how – increased feelings of autonomy and reduced career insecurity.

(c) Career transitions

Career transitions has been defined as events or non-events in the career development process causing changes in the meaning of the career, one's self assumptions and view of the world (O'Neil, Fishman & Kinsella-Shaw, 1987; Van Rensburg & Ukpere, 2014). Most career transitions involve either a change in tasks, position, or occupation (Heppner, Multon, & Johnston, 1994; McDonald & Hite, 2016). Common career transitions experienced by many individuals include initial career choice, entry to organisation, reassessment of career, involuntary job loss, and retirement (Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2008). The benefit of this transition model is that it allows the practitioner to identify and address the emotional response to the transition (Nicholson, 1990; Van Rensburg & Ukpere, 2014).

Initial entry into the organisation can be quite stressful as the new employee is filled with ambiguity and anxiety regarding his/her supervisor, colleagues and the job itself. Well-developed orientation programs, networking opportunities and coaching are just a few of the

initiatives that have the potential to assist employees through this adjustment process. Career counselling and alternative career paths could be beneficial to the individual re-evaluating his/her career. Regardless of the type of transitions, individuals experiencing some type of change in their careers are likely to encounter feelings of or a period of instability (McDonald & Hite, 2016).

(d) Career identity

Career identity resembles constructs like role identity, occupational identity, and organisational identity in that they all refer to how people define themselves in a particular work context (McDonald & Hite, 2016). Career identity, however, is inherently longitudinal because it involves making sense of one's past and present and giving direction to one's future (Fugate, Kinicki, & Ashforth, 2004). Identities are constructed and re-constructed during the course of one's career (Turnbull, 2004) and particularly when individuals are experiencing career transitions (Ibarra, 1999; Van Rensburg & Ukpere, 2014).

2.1.4 Conceptualisation of Career Development

Career development forms an integral part of the survival and growth of an organisation in a complex and changing environment (Naidoo, 2004; Pieters, 2011). This implies that irrespective of whether an individual is starting out in a career or moving into his or her late career, continued career development is necessary. According to Pieters (2011) developing one's career usually involves the following steps:

- Reviewing the past
- Assessing the current situation
- Imagining the future and goal setting
- Formulating action plans

There are various models of career development stages, despite some differences, these share several common elements (Martin & Barnard, 2013; Pieters, 2011). The assertion is people progress through an orderly sequence of stages, each of which presents a set of concerns or challenges. Moreover, each stage is associated with an approximate age range, although variations in ages are generally acknowledged. Greenhaus and Callanan (1994) identified five career development stages as outlined in figure 2.1 below.

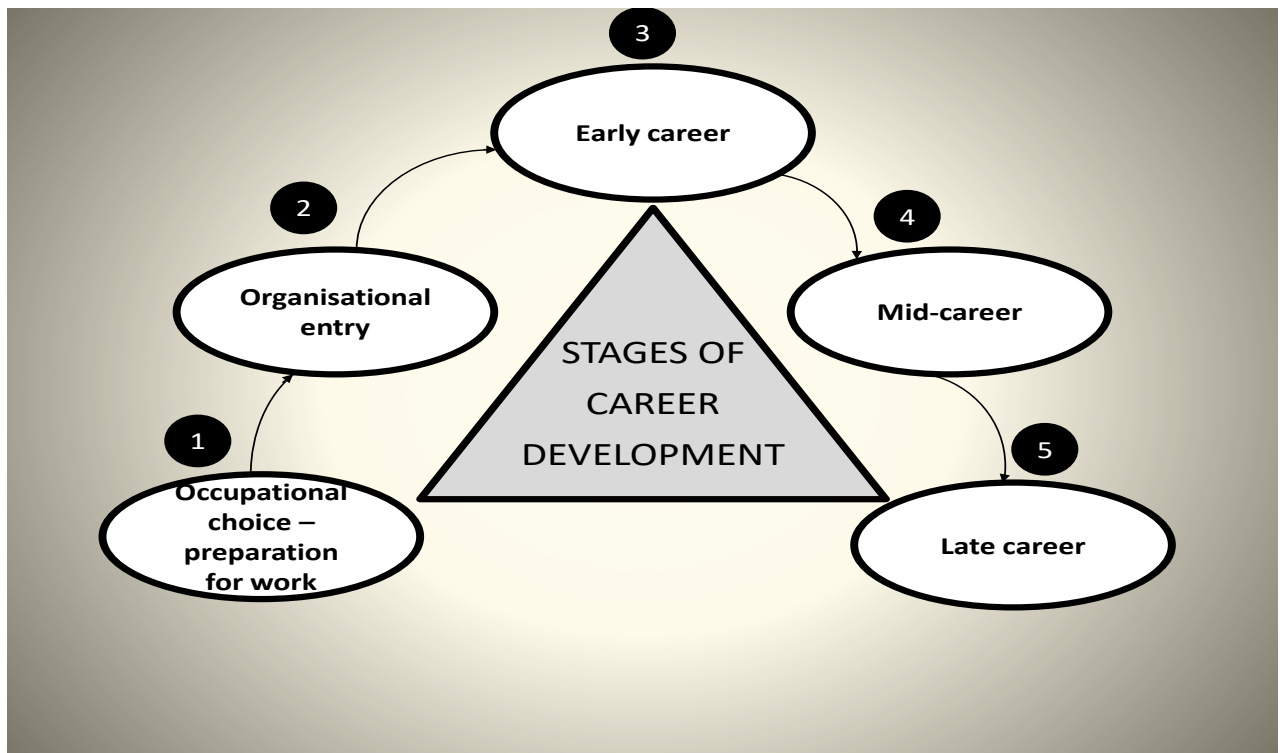


Figure 2. 1: Stages in Career Development (Pieters, 2011, p.85)

Stage 1: Occupational choice – preparation for work

From a career perspective, the major concerns of this stage are to form and refine an occupational self-image, explore the qualities of alternative occupations, develop at least a tentative occupational choice, and pursue the type of education and training required to implement the choice. These issues require considerable understanding into one's own talents and interests and the rewards associated with alternative occupational fields.

Stage 2: Organisational entry

The main concern at this stage is to select a job and an organisation in one's chosen career field. A positive outcome would be a job that will satisfy one's career values and utilize one's talents. People at the organisational entry stage are usually between the ages of 18 and 25 often depending on the duration of their education. The main concern at this stage is to choose a job and organisation that will satisfy one's career values and utilize one's talents.

Stage 3: Early career

The individual's major concern at this stage is to learn about the job and the organisation and to become accepted as a competent contributor to the organisation. When employees enter the organisation, they go through three phases such as getting in phase, breaking in phase and setting in phase. During the getting in phase, the employee tries to get a realistic picture of the organisation and find the job that best suits his or her abilities, experiences and preferences. In the breaking in phase, an employee attempts to become a part of a work team by establishing a relationship with peers and supervisors, demonstrates capabilities and define their role. The setting in phase, the employee deals with issues outside work and any demands that conflict with their job.

Stage 4: Mid-career

An individual's mid-career (age 35-50) is initiated by mid-life transitions, which serve as a bridge between early and middle adulthood. Individuals move into a period of stabilization, where they are viewed as productive, become increasingly visible, and accept high levels of responsibility. This period involves new experiences such as special assignments, further transfers and promotions, offers from other organisations and establishing one's value to the organisation.

Stage 5: Late career

This stage is dominated by two major concerns. First, the individual must continue to be a productive contributor to the organisation and maintain his or her sense of self-worth and dignity. However, the maintenance of productivity and self-esteem is often hindered by changes within the individual and by society's bias against older people. Second, during the late career phase the individual must anticipate and plan for an effective retirement, so that disengagement from work is meaningful and satisfying. The late career extends roughly from the mid-fifties to retirement.

2.2 IMPORTANCE OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT

The importance of career development is that it helps professionals keep their knowledge, skills and competencies updated (McGuire, 2014). If an organisation pays the necessary attention to the career development of employees, it will be able to attract the required qualified employees (Rothmann & Cooper, 2015). Career development services help employees to enhance their careers and personal growth and increase their engagement, job satisfaction, perceptions of

careers and personal growth (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2016). Career development also leads to lower turnover among employees because they now see that their expectations are being met (Biswakarma, 2016). Employees tend to be more productive and perform better when their abilities are being utilised more fully (Rothmann & Cooper, 2015).

Through career development, employees generally acquire more skills, obtain better jobs, can cope better with increased responsibility and job mobility, and experience greater job satisfaction (Pieters, 2011). Organisations are becoming more and more aware of the need for greater attention to the development and planning of employees' careers (Riggio, 2013). Helping employees plan their careers lead to a more productive, more satisfied, and a more loyal workforce (Gaffney, 2005; Noe, 1996).

(a) Benefits of career development

The benefits of career development are summarised in table 2.1.

Table 2. 1

Benefits of career development (Riggio, 2013, p. 161)

Benefits of career development system		
For managers/supervisors	For employees	For the organisation
Increased skill in managing own careers	Helpful assistance with career decisions and changes	Better use of employee skills
Greater retention of valued employees	Enrichment of present job and increased job satisfaction	Increased loyalty
Better communication between manager and employee	Better communication between employee and manager	Dissemination of information at all organisation levels
More realistic staff and development planning	More realistic goals and expectations	Better communication within an organisation as a whole
Productive performance appraisal discussions	Better feedback on performance	Greater retention of valued employees
Increased understanding of the organisation	Current information about the organisation and future trends	Expanded public image as a people-developing organisation
Enhanced reputation as a people developer	Greater sense of personal responsibility for managing career	Increased effectiveness of personnel systems and procedures

2.2.1 Psychological factors influencing career development

One psychological factor that affects an individual's career development is work volition. Work volition, as mentioned by Duffy and Dirk (2009), refers to an individual's ability to freely make career choices, including the initial job choice when first entering the work environment and any subsequent career decisions. An individual's ability to freely make a choice in which career to pursue determines the way that individual will take steps to ensure that they develop their career to their satisfaction. Work volition which is career choice is also linked to the individual's interest. Obiunu and Ebunu (2014) argue that an individual's interest would either make him/her to do something or not, even if he/she can do it. According to Miles (2015) interest in a career field is a precursor to career success. Hughes and Karp (2004) reviewed over 50 studies on career interventions and found that self-assessment and self-interests inventories are related to improved career-selection and development measures. Values also impact career development. Miles (2015) contends that values may be considered as important motivators for career choice and the way an individual develops towards a career path. Values help an individual to select certain components for them to develop themselves in their career. For instance, an individual that places social status over monetary value might work towards getting a promotion that offers a prestigious title more than pay increase.

Career anchors also influence career development. In a study conducted by Schein (1990), the researcher found that career anchors have become an important construct in career development because such anchors can either hinder or enhance both career choices and decisions to changes occupations. When individuals gain experiences in career development, they also become career anchored (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2010). At a point in the career development process, the individual will naturally initiate career choices that are associated with the expression of their dominant career anchor (Schein, 1996).

Several authors found that some psychological aspects, such as emotional intelligence, personality types and self-esteem influence career development (Gedro, 2017; Guindon, 2010; Oosthuizen, Coetzee & Mntonintshi, 2014). A study carried by Guindon (2010) found that there is a strong relationship between career development and self-esteem. Most people acknowledge that positive career development experiences can foster positive global and contingent self-esteem, and low self-esteem can limit the person's opportunities for experiencing positive career situations by restricting the person's perceived opportunities (Guindon, 2010). Betz (2001) suggested that self-esteem has a relationship with career development, particularly in the development of career goals. Kerka (1998) indicated that self-esteem is also a contributing factor to the choice of careers and development. This was also concluded in a study carried out

by Kerka (1998) and Potgieter (2012) that individuals with high self-esteem are generally able to make career decisions and achieve their goals.

Therefore, it is important to consider psychological factors such as self-esteem and career anchors that may influence career development. Both self-esteem and career anchors can be enhanced to ensure better career development strategies.

2.3 CAREER DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES

Effective career development requires integrating career issues with the strategic direction of the organisation (Greenhaus, Callanan, & Godshalk, 2010). In order to be strategic, career development must be an integral part of all human resource management functions (McDonald & Hite, 2016). This is essential if organisations wish to recruit and retain talent (Kaye & Smith, 2012). Therefore, it is critical to determine career development goals for the organisation (McDonald & Hite, 2016). Kaye and Smith (2012) suggested that for career development strategies to be implemented, the organisation must have these career development objectives:

- Assisting employees in managing their careers;
- Planning for leadership succession, identifying, matching and assessing the talent within the organisation;
- Developing employee's competencies and knowledge;
- Establishing plans for organisational disruptions that will impact careers such as mergers and downsizing;
- Retaining key personnel;
- Recruiting and retaining a diverse workforce.

Human resource management leads the efforts of career development and ensure that all individuals (such as top management, management and employees) who have a stake in career development have input in the development of individuals (McDonald & Hite, 2016). Top management focuses on the strategic direction of the organisation which can be beneficial in ensuring alignment between strategy and career development (Oppong & Nisar, 2017). Thus, top management support is required for career development to be a success. Managers understand career needs and trends within the organisation that should be considered in developing a career development strategy (McDonald & Hite, 2016). Therefore, managers will play a critical role in guiding and supporting employees to develop their careers. Employees are in charge for their careers (McDonald & Hite, 2016), they must accept this responsibility and

start making plans for their future development so that they can grow, learn, progress, and thrive in the employment market as well as in their personal life (Heller, 2009).

In planning the direction of career development, it is important to establish the evaluation processes that will be employed to determine the effectiveness of the initiatives developed (Schutt, 2012). Career development efforts must be evaluated at the organisational and individual level for both organisation and employees to benefit from career development (McDonald & Hite, 2005; 2016). Evaluation should be done strategically to determine what is working and not working, implement improvements when necessary and assess the effectiveness that the organisation and individuals derive from career development systems (McDonald & Hite, 2005; 2016).

2.4 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter provided the basis for the fact that career development has evolved over years. In the new era of career development, the employer and employee as well as the organisation benefit from career development. Employers will have ways to support and develop employees' careers. Employees on the other hand will be in-charge of their career development which will increase their self-confidence and personal growth; and the organisation will have a motivated, talented and knowledgeable workforce that will increase productivity.

The development opportunities are likely to be planned at a strategic level and paid for by the organisation. In working towards career development, it is essential that career development objectives are included in the strategy so that the career development can be more efficient in an organisation. In addition, career perspectives and career concepts offer new ways of thinking about careers and how individuals evaluate their careers. Human resource practitioners play an important role in developing employees' careers through an understanding of these career concepts and career perspectives. Career development is also affected by psychological factors such as self-esteem and career anchors.

Chapter 3 focuses on conceptualising the constructs of self-esteem and career anchors.

CHAPTER 3: LITERATURE REVIEW: SELF-ESTEEM AND CAREER ANCHORS

This chapter will define and conceptualise the constructs of self-esteem and career anchors. The chapter aims to explore the two constructs and their related theoretical models. The variables influencing self-esteem and career anchors and their implications for the career development of individuals in a working environment will also be discussed.

3.1 SELF-ESTEEM

Self-esteem is a combination of a person's emotional state or feelings, fears, hopes, thoughts, viewpoints of who the individual is at present, who the person was in the past and what he or she may become in the future (Battle, 1992). Figure 3.1 present a summary of conceptual foundations of self-esteem (Coetzee, 2005).

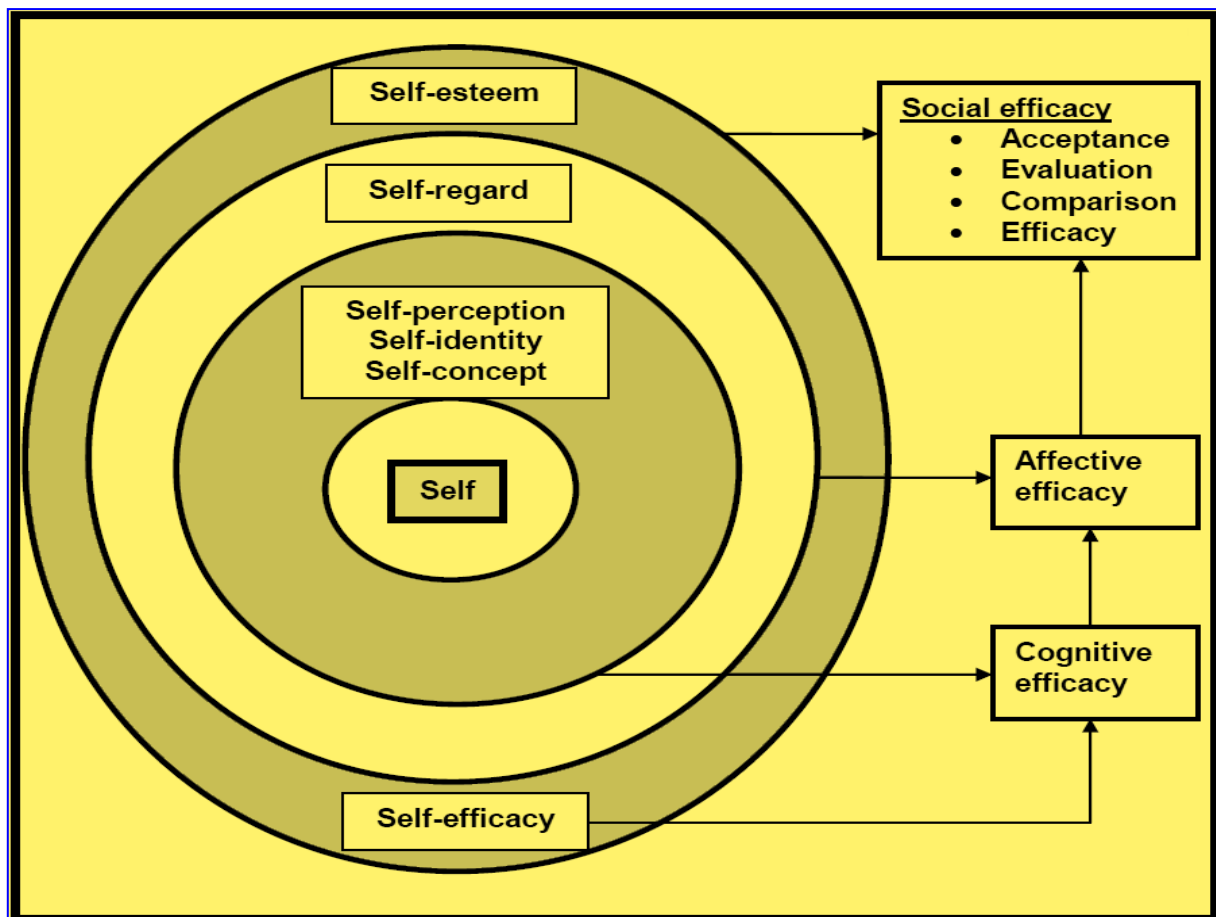


Figure 3. 1: The conceptual foundation of self-esteem (Coetzee, 2005, p.112)

3.1.1 Conceptualisation of self

The self is a concept that has been an important construct in education as well as psychology since the early work of William James (1890). James (1890) clearly distinguished between the self as a subject and an object. James (1890) categorised the self as pure ego (known as “I”) and empirical ego (known as “me”). Cervone and Pervin (2013) expand this view that the self-comprises of the views and meaning linked with the self, me, or I. That is, the self represents an individual’s inherent make-up along with experiences of life (Battle, 2002).

Rogers (1959) takes this discussion further and states that the self signifies an organised and constant pattern of views. In other words, Dutra (2016) and Rogers (1959) viewed the self as a component of phenomenological experience, which means that a person sees experiences and external objects and attaches meaning to them. An approach to personality theory emphasises on how an individual perceives and experiences the self and the world. Even though the self transforms, it always maintains this pattern through organised quality which continues over a sustained period and characterises the person, thus the self is a personality structure (Cervone & Pervin, 2013).

To understand the self broadly, James (1890) separated history of the self into three segments, namely, the knower self (the social self, the material self, the spiritual self and the pure ego); the emotions and feelings they stimulate (self-feelings); and the actions which they cause (self-preservation and self-seeking). In contrast, Rogers (1959) recognised two different facets to the self, namely an ideal self and a genuine self. Rogers (1959) explains that individuals logically contemplate not only about themselves in the existing state, but also their prospective selves in the future. They create a structured pattern of perceptions not only of their existing self but also of an ideal self that they hope to be. The ideal self, then, is the self-concept that a person would most like to own. It encompasses the opinions and meanings that are potentially significant to the self and that are treasured highly by the person. Rogers (1959) therefore states that the perceptions about ourselves encompasses, the self that we believe we are currently and the self that we ideally perceive ourselves becoming in the future.

Cooley (1902) viewed self as a reflected appraisal that people adopt based on imaginary appraisal of others - looking-glass self, in which the understanding of the self is determined by perceptions of other’s judgements. Mead (1934) presented a different view of the self, by viewing the self as a creation of interactions in which people experience themselves mirrored in the behaviour of others. Mead (1934) discussed self-evaluation as an attitude toward self and by so doing contradicts James (1890) and Cooley (1902). Mead’s (1934) view is cognitive in

nature. Furthermore, Mead (1934) believed that the self develops from the continual interaction of I (the subjective, private, experiencing part of the self) with the Me (the objective, social aspect of the self) (Mead, 1934). More recently, Bergh and Theron (2012) explains that the self generally has positive aspects and negative attributes, and some theorists have described the self as multidimensional, consisting of self-schemas which are attributes that people attach to their self-concept. Thus, the self-comprises of all statements made by an individual, covertly or overtly, that consist of the words “I”, “mine”, “me” and “myself” (Cooley, 1902; Tyler et al., 2014). In the light of the discussion above, the self can be viewed as an individual’s life experiences and inherent make-up.

3.1.2 Conceptualisation of the term self-concept

Cervone and Pervin (2013) state that self-concept is a central aspect of personality that indicates aspects which characterise a person. Reece (2014) explains self-concept as a collection of an individual’s viewpoint, beliefs, and perceptions that exist every day. Generally, people have one personality but many self-concepts which include proprium (sense of self); ideal self (what would you like to be); real self (true behaviour or what one could become); material self (family and body perceptions), social self (what other people think of him/her); looking glass self (how he/she thinks is perceived); and “I” and “me” experiences (how one perceives oneself) (Guindon, 2010). With regard to self-concept, Rogers (1951) defined the term as an over-all view of oneself and an individual’s self-esteem reactions. Baron and Byrne (2003) and Willow-Peterson (2016) however view self-concept as one’s identity, a schema comprising of an organised assortment of feelings and beliefs about oneself. Self-concept encompasses all those facets of one’s make-up and one’s experiences that are observed in awareness (though not always precisely) by the person (Dutra, 2016; Rogers, 1959).

According to Battle (2002) self-concept is grounded on behavioural ideologies and the exchange between behaviour and the environment. Self-concept may indicate self-identity which is a self-perspective based on a collection of belief of who one is and their sense of belonging (Rothwell, 2013). People’s self-concepts in terms of their personality grow and develop from their life, attitudes and thoughts (Bergh & Theron, 2012).

Another part of self-concept is self-assessment which is also referred to as self-esteem in which one views oneself as being good or bad which may influence various aspects of self-perceptions (Flett, 2007). Rosenberg and Owens (2001) explain that self-esteem has a strong background incorporated under the self-concept (thoughts and feelings about the self). Self-esteem as a positive self-worth or self-concept is considered to be an important resource for coping (Landy

& Conte, 2013). For an individual to understand the development of self-esteem, it is useful to analyse an individual's form of self-concept. Reece (2008) states that one's self concept are realities, thoughts, beliefs and insights about oneself that are present in one's daily life. In other words, self-concept sums up one's identity or self-perception (Rothwell, 2013).

3.1.3 Conceptualisation of self-identity

Self-identity is the way an individual identifies and perceives him/herself. A person's personal identity is a self-categorisation grounded on the alleged similarities and variations from other people, and it expresses a person's sense of individuality (Coetzee, 2005). Self-identity is acquired through social interactions that begin with (individual's) your immediate family and continue with other people (one) you meet through life (Baron & Byrne, 1997; Brizio et al., 2015). Baumeister (1997) and Leary and Tangney (2012) perceives self-identity as the definitions that are developed for and added on the self. An individual's self-identity is usually seen as comprising both personal and social personalities (Banaji & Prentice, 1994; Leary & Tangney, 2012; Turner, Oakes, Haslam & McGarty, 1994). Brewer and Gardner (1996) divides social identities into three stages, namely individual, interpersonal and collective or group social identities.

(a) Individual level

At the first stage, the individual stage, interpersonal assessments are emphasised in terms of traits as a way of distinguishing one's personality from other people (Brewer & Gardner, 1996; Jarymowicz, 2015). In the stage of individual oneness, a person develops probable personalities that displays growth in terms of individual traits, for instance, by becoming wealthier, healthier, highly skilled or educated. The development and completeness of the individual traits described above create a powerful image that sustains and explains any of the activities that are being experienced (Lord, Brown & Freiberg, 1999; Miscenko, 2017).

(b) Interpersonal level

At the interpersonal phase, self-concept is defined with regards to roles that clarify an individual's relationship with other individuals (Brewer & Gardner, 1996; Jarymowicz, 2015). These kinds of relationships could encompass learner-educator relationships, child-parent relationships or employee-employer relationships. Lord *et al.* (1999) and Miscenko (2017) purports that mutual gains and interdependent selves become more substantial at this stage. Self-worth is dependent on suitable role behaviour (for instance, being a learner or a good

educator or being a good employee or a good employer). Additionally, self-representation relies on a person's reflected self, or the individual's self as depicted through other people's reactions. Interpersonal phase identities recommend that the probable selves should be connected to improved role relationship (being cared for and understood by the person's partner or spouse or parent and being appreciated by one's boss or employer and co-workers or associates) (Bode, 2015).

(c) Collective or group level

At the collective stage, an individual identifies with a specific collective like an individual's work team or organisation, utilising the collective prototype as a base for intergroup comparisons and self-definition (David, 2015). A paramount issue at this stage is usually the collective wellbeing of the group. According to Lord et al. (1999) and Miscenko (2017) group-level identification considers cultural or racial distinctions particularly essential. At group stage, individuals define themselves in light of the social groups to which they belong (Johnson, Chang & Rosen, 2010). At this phase, individuals are motivated by the wellbeing of these groups and internalise collective values and goals (Jackson, Colquitt, Wesson & Zapata-Phelan, 2006). A person identifies with a certain group (such as a work team or organisation) applying that collective's prototype as a standard for intergroup comparisons and self-definition (Lord et al., 1999; Miscenko, 2017). The collective wellbeing of the group is usually a crucial concern at this stage. During group-stage identification, racial and cultural variations become vital. Moreover, organisational identities may be essential when the self is defined at the group stage (Desai, 2017; Dutton, Dukerich & Harquail, 1994). If a person is ill-treated by the collective, this poor social treatment indicates to the person that he or she is not appreciated or liked by the collective. Brewer and Gardner (1996) and Jarymowicz (2015) explain that reflected appraisals are a vital source of self-relevant information at the interpersonal stage.

(d) Multiple identities

Handling multiple identities applies to the role of establishing a self-view as a leader while sustaining a sense of self that includes racial and gender identity (Coetzee, 2005). McCauley, Russ and Van Velsor (1998) and Shurden and Shurden (2015) state that women find it challenging to establish complex identities in a business world that underscores the leadership role to the marginalisation of others. Another identity-related tension is the role of attempting to ascertain what it encompasses to be part of an organisation.

3.1.4 Conceptualisation of self-perception

Self-perception is linked to self-identity. People may have diverse self-perceptions of their worth and competence across various roles (Korman, 1970; Rama & Sarada, 2017). For example, there are differences in self-perception during adulthood based on both age and cultural context (Ewen, 2010). Gender differences in self-perception are common with women being more concerned about their body image especially their physical appearance than men (Baron & Byrne, 1997; Brizio et al., 2015). Ewen (2010) believes that adults gain self-esteem as they handle challenges of adult life effectively but then lose it with age, illness, losses of roles and failed relationships. Self-perceptions may reflect a range of usual and particular personal qualities, like physical traits, behavioural tendencies and realms of competency (Farmer et al., 2017; Jussim, 2005; Salley, Vannatta, Gerhardt & Noll, 2010; Shavelson, Hubner, & Stanton, 1976).

In this study, it should be noted that self-perception, self-awareness and self-consciousness are closely linked to the aspect of self-identity, especially in the self-appraisals context (Gray-Little & Hafdahl, 2000). Self-awareness is the ability to recognise and understand how individuals behave and how their behaviour influences others (Reece, 2012; 2014). The importance of self-awareness is being recognised by an increasing number of authors, trainers and educators (Reece, 2012; 2014). One of the critical ways to enhance relationships with other people is to develop a better understanding of oneself as an individual (Reece, 2012; 2014), which is self-awareness. Self-awareness enables individuals to examine the way they see themselves and others (Covey, 1989; Reece, 2014). Reece (2012; 2014) states that with increased self-awareness, individuals understand how their behaviour influences others. Similarly, Battle (2002) defines self-esteem as the awareness that individuals have of their own value. Therefore, self-awareness is the foundation on which self-development is built (Reece, 2014). A state of heightened, objective self-awareness will bring about attitude-behaviour consistency (Coetzee, 2005).

3.1.5 Conceptualisation of self-regard

Self-regard can be described as the imaginary appraisal of other people or reflected appraisal that a person assumes and adopts (Hattie, 2014). Self-regard appears to be the affective component of self-esteem, which incorporates feelings of self-confidence and self-worth (Potgieter, 2012). Dutra (2016) and Rogers (1959) understands the necessity for positive regard as an influential force throughout a person's life. All individuals have a basic psychological need which is a need for positive regard. According to Maslow (1970), people need more than food,

water and shelter. They also have psychological needs which involve the need to be loved, nurtured and acknowledged by others and these are important to human development.

Thus, the need for positive regard to be acknowledged and valued by others, that is, to receive other people's positive regard is a fundamental human need. Dutra (2016) and Rogers (1951) points out that the self is the most essential aspect of each individual's world and he believed that, in addition to maintaining and enhancing the self, everyone needs to receive a positive regard.

3.1.6 Conceptualisation of self-esteem

Self-esteem denotes individuals' general views of, and feelings about, their worth (Battle, 1992). The concept of self-esteem is not novel; it has been part of human psyche for many years (Guindon, 2010). The beginnings of self-esteem as a modern psychological concept can be traced to William James who is credited as the earliest investigator of self-psychology (Guindon, 2010). James (1890) pointed out that individuals are born into a set of possible identities shaped by influences such as background or history, culture, family, interests and circumstance. Thus, he viewed self-esteem as a psychological concept and defined it as an appreciation of the self. James (1890) and Zeigler-Hill (2013) believe that there is a link between self-esteem and values such as competence and achievements. James (1890) thus rationalised that self-esteem is a trait because individuals carry a regular level of self-feeling all the time irrespective of the objective reality. In the light of the above discussion, self-esteem can be seen as something that includes parts of life that are crucial to an individual in terms of the person's identity, how well the individual has performed in the team, and the fact that the individual must remain concerned with the team over time (James, 1890; Zeigler-Hill, 2013).

Thereafter, the concept of self-esteem has generated interest for several scholars since, more so in the 21st century where the self is taking prominence over the collective. Defining self-esteem even in the 21st century has largely been shaped by scholars like Charles Cooley (1902) viewed self-esteem as affective (Guindon, 2010; Zeigler-Hill, 2013). Robins et al. (2018) observed that who we believe ourselves to be is very much tied to our social environment, in this regard he concurs with. Mead (1934) also wrote a lot on self-esteem. Thagard and Wood (2015) mention that, as argued by Mead (1934), the self is perceived as a product of interactions in which people experience themselves as reflected in the behaviour of other people. Thagard and Wood (2015) also perceive self-evaluation as an attitude toward the self. Aboulafia (2016) believed that the self develops from the continual interaction of "I" (the subjective, private, experiencing part of the self) with the "Me" (the objective, social aspect of the self). Both Cooley

(1902) and Mead (1934) emphasise the process and power of social learning in relation to self-esteem.

Alfred Adler (1927) viewed self-esteem as a system of conquering a deep sense of inferiority, which he believed was connected to human behaviour, both positive and negative (Mruk, 2013). Later in 1956, Adler used the term self-acceptance which entails perceptions of competence and achievement, he believed in coping rather than avoiding life's problems. Self-acceptance is the degree to which one likes and accept oneself. Khalid, Ahmed and Sumera (2013) and Sullivan (1953) argued that self-esteem is a social prerequisite that must be accepted, which is derived from social interaction mediated by reflected self-appraisal. Gordon Allport (1961) likened self-esteem to the sense of pride that emanates from recognition that an individual can do things on their own. During the 1950s Robert White concentrated on the development implications of self-esteem, especially with regards to mastery and competence (Mruk, 2013). White (1963) mentioned that self-esteem has two sources: an internal source of a sense of accomplishment and an external source of affirmation from others. White (1963) described self-esteem as a developmental process and recognised competence as a key factor.

Stanley Coopersmith (1959, 1967) viewed self-esteem from a learning theory perspective and tried to perceive self-esteem in controlled conditions. Coopersmith (1967) describes self-esteem as a self-evaluation of personal worthiness. Coopersmith (1967) claims that self-esteem is comprised of two parts – subjective expression and behavioural manifestation – and self-esteem is thus the self-evaluation of personal worthiness. He addressed true self-esteem (evident in individuals who feel valuable and worthy) and defensive self-esteem (evident in individuals who feel unworthy but who cannot acknowledge this threatening information (Guindon, 2010).

Morris Rosenberg (1965) defined self-esteem as a positive or negative attitude concerning a certain object, namely, the self. He concentrated his attention on the social elements affecting self-esteem (Mruk, 2013). Rosenberg (1965) investigated the development of the self-image through the adolescence phase and its significances for adults and adolescents. He emphasised the self-image as a global facet of the personality and decided that self-esteem is an attitude concerning a particular object, the self. Feedback from others, especially significant others is a significant component of self-esteem (Rosenberg, 1979). This feedback may be real or perceived. In this regard, self-esteem is an amalgamation of certain estimates of the person's numerous and diverse characteristics.

Abraham Maslow (1968) and Carl Rogers (1951, 1961) studied self-esteem from a humanistic perspective to understanding human behaviour from its beginnings (Mruk, 2013). Rogers (1951)

defined self-esteem as the magnitude to which individuals accept, like and value themselves. Rogers (1951) assumed that the self formulates from an amalgamation of what is experienced and interjected, emanating from values and affective preferences. Rogers (1961) noted that the condition of *'the self'* as being a crucial element pertaining an individual's emotional health. Additionally, he stipulates that every individual live in a private and distinctive world of their own perceptions, reacting to the environment from the window of personal awareness. His core in comprehending self-esteem was directed towards a person's learning to recognise the self (Rogers, 1961). Roger's work can also be regarded as a phenomenological theory. A phenomenological theory highlights a person's subjective experience of one's world – that is, a person's phenomenological experience. Roger is a counsellor whose aim was to comprehend a person's phenomenological experience of the self and the world to contribute towards individual personal growth. As a philosopher, Roger's desire was to establish a framework to clarify the character and development of the self as the core element of personality. Roger's phenomenological self-theory might also be defined using another term: humanistic. Roger's work forms a significant portion of a humanistic movement in psychology whose primary feature was to give priority to individuals' inherent potential for development.

Abraham Maslow developed his theory of human motivation during the Great Depression in the 1930s (Bergh, 2011). Maslow suggested psychological needs as self-esteem, affection and belonging (Landy & Conte, 2013). Maslow (1970) suggested that individuals need positive self-esteem (having a good feeling about themselves) and esteem from others to belong (assuming that others also feel confident about them and that the group accepts them). In order to formulate a positive self-esteem, individuals strive for success and mastery of their socio-cultural atmosphere (Coetzee, 2005). Individuals feel capable, confident, strong, valuable and needed when they are content about their need for self-esteem. Once individuals are not happy about their need for self-esteem, they tend to feel weak, restless, worried, depressed, inferior and useless (Coetzee, 2005). A positive self-concept adds to an individual's general level of ingenuity and beliefs about the individual's general level of capability. As a core self-evaluation, self-esteem has been positively associated to job performance and job satisfaction (Bowling, Wang, Tang & Kennedy, 2010). Thus, the significance of self-esteem is linked to such aspect like self-actualisation and living a full genuine life (Mruk, 2013). In this study, self-esteem is viewed as a combination of an individual's emotions, aspirations and perceptions which is based on self-knowledge; and insight of your own potential (Battle, 1992).

Self-esteem is considered one of the oldest areas in psychology and Mruk (2013) states that the need for a definition is often great when focusing on subjective phenomena, such as self-esteem, because it is hard to observe, measure or assess. In this regard, all definitions are

significant considering that each definition can reveal certain things about self-esteem that can be understood from a certain point of view (Mruk, 2006). Following are definitions of self-esteem from different authors.

Table 3. 1
Definition of Self-Esteem

Author	Definition
William James (1890:145)	Self-esteem is a self-appreciation comprising of feelings and emotions concerning the self.
Sullivan (1953:4)	Self-esteem is the social need to be recognized and liked and to belong that emanates from social interaction mediated by reflected self-appraisal.
Gordon Allport (1961:28)	Equated self-esteem to the sense of pride that originates from recognition that an individual can do things on their own.
White (1963:129)	Self-esteem has two sources: an internal source of a sense of achievement and an external source of affirmation from others. He explained self-esteem as a developmental process and identified competence as a vital factor.
Roger (1951:45)	Self-esteem is defined as the extent to which people like, value, and accept themselves. He believes that the self develops from a combination of what is experienced and what is interjected, derived from values and affective preferences.
Coopersmith (1967:30)	Self-esteem is a self-evaluation of personal worthiness. He addresses true self-esteem (seen in those who feel worthy and valuable) and defensive self-esteem (seen in those who feel unworthy but who cannot admit this threatening information).
Branden (1969:110)	Self-esteem is a standard by which one judges oneself, an estimate, an emotion, and as the experience that we are appropriate to life and to the requirements of life.
Epstein (1973:3)	Views self-esteem as a basic human need. Self enhancement is a basic motive. Self-esteem is conceptualised as a consequence of one's understanding of the world and others and who one is in relation to them. Two factors affecting self-esteem are success/failure and acceptance/rejection.
Landy and Conte (2013:90)	Self-esteem is a positive self-worth or self-concept that is an important resource for coping.
Hewitt (2002:139)	Self-esteem is a socially constructed syndrome of emotions is dependent upon the situation and its demands and therefore a variable psychological state.
Baron and Byrne (1997:67; 2003:449)	The self-evaluation made by each individual; one's attitude toward oneself along a positive-negative dimension.
Cervone and Pervin (2013:49)	The person's overall evaluative regard for the self or personal judgment of worthiness.

Table 3.1 above depicts varying definitions of self-esteem. From these definitions self-esteem largely focuses on an individual's self-image, self-concept and self-worth/appreciation. Considering the above, this study will use a combination of the definitions by James (1890), White (1963), Branden (1969) and Landy and Conte (2013). In this regard the definition of self-esteem will be a positive self-worth, self-concept or self-appreciation comprising of feelings and emotions concerning the self, taking into consideration standards by which one judges oneself, an estimate, an emotion, and as the experience that we are appropriate to life and to the requirements of life. This is line with Battle's (1992) model who describes self-esteem as a composite of an individual's feelings, hopes, fears, thoughts, viewpoints of who he or she is currently, who the person was in the past and what one might become. The study used this combined definition because it highlights critical constructs that play a role in an individual's development of self-esteem which is significant in their career development.

Furthermore, according to Coetzee (2005), the definitions of self-esteem offer numerous dissimilarities of the construct self-esteem. A mutual thread appears to be the emphasis of the affective, cognitive and social facets of self-esteem:

- (i) *Cognitive aspects of self-esteem* include self-concept, self-identity, self-perception, self-regard and self-efficacy.
- (ii) *Affective aspects of self-esteem* encompass self-regard and emotions.
- (iii) *Social aspects of self-esteem* mainly refer to acceptance, evaluation, comparison and efficacy.

Considering the above, the different constructs of self-esteem are always pivotal to the development of an individual's self-image and self-concept which is vital for any individual. For this study, the constructs of self-esteem play a role on the aspects of career development that an individual is likely to pursue.

3.1.6.1 Self-efficacy and self-respect

Activity self-esteem involves an association between self-efficacy and self-respect (Branden, 1994; Reece, 2008; 2012). Bandura (1997) comments on the distinction between self-esteem and self-efficacy and states that although the terms often are utilised interchangeably, they represent totally different things. Bandura (1997) suggests that people may be worthless at a particular task, without a lowering of self-esteem. Figure 3.2 shows self-esteem as an amalgamation of self-respect and self-efficacy.



Figure 3. 2: The relationship of self-efficacy and self-respect leads to self-esteem

(a) Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy is the belief in one's capability to do a particular task or reach a particular goal (Bandura, 1997). Baron and Byrne (2003) have a similar view that self-efficacy is an individual's evaluation of his or her capability to perform a task, attain a goal, or conquer an obstacle. Bergh

and Theron (2012) refer to self-efficacy as having less or more control over issues that affect individuals' lives. It involves the perception of an individual's personal capability to utilize their skills effectively (Bergh & Theron, 2012). Therefore, self-efficacy refers to a belief in the possibility that one might effectively execute some action or task to accomplish some positive outcome (Rothman & Cooper, 2015). In other words, self-efficacy is about an individual's sense of effectiveness and competence (Riggio, 2013).

Self-efficacy is a powerful motivator of behaviour because anticipations at a particular point in time figure out the fundamental choice to do a task, the effort that will be put in and the level of persistence that develops when facing adversity (Rothman & Cooper, 2015). It is a belief that individuals can achieve their goals (Reece, 2012).

Self-efficacy is a significant concept associated to an individual's capability to manage a stressful situation, but it is also an essential factor relating to an employee's capacity to do his or her job (job-related self-efficacy), to lead a work team (leadership self-efficacy), and to manage work relationships effectively (relationship self-efficacy) (Riggio, 2013). Self-efficacy can also be viewed as a broad, stable characteristic that people possess and carry with them, that reflects the expectation that they pose the capacity to perform tasks well in diverse achievement situations (Rothman & Cooper, 2015). A large body of research indicates that self-efficacy is a complex construct, it influences human behaviour through cognitive, motivational, affective and selection procedures (Bandura, 1993; Tsang et al., 2012). Therefore, self-efficacy is the ability to create a positive attitude that influences an individual's self-esteem (Reece, 2012).

(b) Self-respect

Self-respect is part of self-esteem which is what an individual think and feels about themselves (Mruk, 2006, Reece, 2011; 2014; Spector, 2012). Maslow's fourth level is esteem needs, which involve self-respect and the respect of others (Spector, 2012). A person's judgment of their own value is a key aspect in attaining personal and career accomplishments (Reece, 2014). Individuals with low levels of self-respect are likely to feel unworthy of praise and believe they deserve verbal and physical abuse from others, whilst individuals who appreciate themselves tend to behave in ways that affirm and reinforce this appreciation (Reece, 2011). Branden (1994) and Reece (2014) considers that the healthier an individual's self-esteem, the more motivated the individual is to treat others with goodwill, respect and fairness, since individual do not tend to see themselves as a threat, and since self-respect is the base of respect for others. Self-respect means assurance of a person's value; and positive attitude toward a person's right to

exist and to be happy; comfort in properly asserting a person's wants, thoughts, and needs; and the feeling that joy and contentment are a person's natural birth-right (Branden, 1994; Spector, 2012). Self-respect signifies a person's own thoughts and emotions of the self and is seen as a contributing factor to accomplish personal and occupational success (Reece, 2014).

3.1.6.2 Types of self-esteem

Self-esteem is classified into two types, namely, high self-esteem and low self-esteem (Mruk, 2013). Individuals with high self-esteem tend to feel capable and worthwhile, whilst individuals with low self-esteem are likely to feel incapable and worthless (Reece, 2008; 2014). Potgieter (2012) is also of the view that individuals with high self-esteem tend to experience higher levels of self-efficacy and they take proactive ways to build and organise their own careers. Conversely, individuals with low self-esteem are likely to have lower self-efficacy as well as confidence in their own judgements and opinions (Guindon, 2010).

(a) High Self Esteem

Guindon (2010) and Magnusson and Nermo (2018) indicate that many studies support the fact that high-self-esteem individuals seem to be more self-directed and independent than individuals with low self-esteem. High self-esteem people are open to feedback and can understand circumstances positively (Guindon, 2010). However, Coopersmith (1967) and Finnegan-Davies (2015) contend that high self-esteem does not essentially reflect strong feelings of efficacy, nor does a good sense of self-efficacy ensure high self-esteem. High self-esteem individuals are confident in the accuracy of their perceptions and judgements and believe that they can favourably resolve their efforts. In a study conducted by Coetzee (2009), the researcher found that people with higher self-esteem showed more realistic accomplishments and a commitment to long-lasting learning. Reece (2014) is of the view that individuals with high self-esteem tend to maintain an internal locus of control, handle their emotions, hardly takes things personally, accept other individuals as distinctive and talented and possess productive personalities.

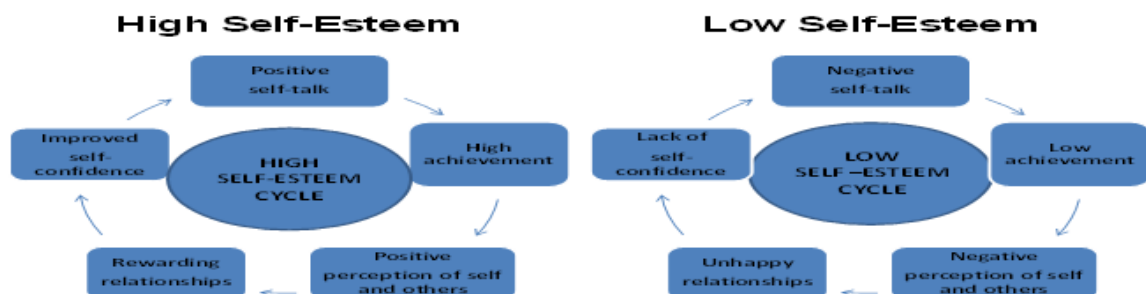
(b) Low Self Esteem

Mruk (2006) states that low self-esteem reflects unworthiness and low efficiency on individuals. Mruk (2006) links a low self-esteem with nervousness, caution, lack of ingenuity, conflict avoidance, timidity, depression and anxiety. Guindon (2010) further states that low self-esteem is related to negative phenomena such as social anxiety, depression and suicide; whereas, high

self-esteem appears to be a consequence of having experienced success. Lower self-esteem individuals tend to be more cautious, self-protective and conservative than high self-esteem people (Guindon, 2010). Reece (2014) is of the view that individuals with low self-esteem have a tendency to maintain an external locus of control, tend to partake in self-discouraging behaviours, and display poor interpersonal skills. They usually rely on the opinion of others to develop their inner self-worth.

Figure 3.3 summarises the cycle of employees that demonstrates high self-esteem and low self-esteem.

Figure 3. 3: Summary of high self-esteem and low self-esteem (Reece, 2008, p.99)



Furthermore, Guindon (2010) summarise some characteristics of high and low self-esteems. These characteristics are summarised in Table 3.2.

Table 3. 2

Characteristics of high and low self-esteem individuals (Guindon, 2010, p. 20)

High self-esteem	Low self-esteem
Confident	Lacks self-confidence
Friendly/outgoing	Socially inept
Happy	Unhappy
Positive/Optimistic	Negative (attitude)
Motivated	Demotivated
Achieving	Underachieving
Competitive/risk taker	Non-risk taker
Accepting/tolerant	Acts out/Intolerant
Involved/active	Inactive
Secure/well adjusted	Insecure
Comfortable	Withdraw/shy/quiet
Assertive	Angry/hostile (aggressive)
Caring	Poor self-image
Independent	Dependent/follower
Responsible	Irresponsible

3.1.6.3 Levels of self-esteem

The self-esteem level can have a strong influence on one's behaviour (Reece, 2008; 2014). High levels of self-esteem are likely to relate to positive results such as high productivity, occupational success and psychological adjustment such as subjective well-being and persistence when faced with adversity (Zeigler-Hill, 2012). Lee-Flynn, Pomaki, de Longis, Biesanz and Puterman (2011) have found that individuals with high levels of self-esteem tend to be affected less by negative thought processes as opposed to people with low levels of self-esteem.

Epstein (1973) noted three different levels of self-esteem: global, intermediate, and situational.

- Global self-esteem is the usual evaluation of a complete estimate of general self-worth; a level of self-acceptance or respect for oneself; an attribute or tendency reasonably stable and enduring, consisting of all subordinate attributes and characteristics within the attribute.
- Intermediate self-esteem involves special domains such as competence, lovability, self-control and body appearance.
- Situational self-esteem is the day-to-day manifestation of self-esteem that varies with circumstances.

Global self-esteem refers to the overall feelings expressed by an individual (Stets & Burke, 2014). Global and intermediate self-esteem affect situational self-esteem (Epstein, 1973; Magnusson & Nermo, 2018).

3.1.6.4 Stability of self-esteem

Self-esteem stability applies to instant feelings of self-esteem, which usually will not be motivated by daily positive or negative experiences (Kernis, 2005). In contrast, unstable self-esteem applies to delicate and vulnerable feelings of self-esteem which will be motivated by internally created feelings, like reflecting on one's social aspects, and externally received evaluative information, for instance a negative remark or a failed course (Kernis, 2005). One's self-esteem is distinguished by stability and instability changes in both the short-term and long-term (Rosenberg, 1986; Mruk, 2013). Short-term instabilities or barometric instability in self-esteem indicate fluctuations in an individual's contextually based global self-esteem. Some individuals with an unstable self-esteem may encounter short-term fluctuations from extremely

positive feelings to extremely negative feelings about themselves. Long-term instabilities or baseline self-esteem occur regularly over a long period of time (Kernis, 2006).

Even though a few individuals with an unstable self-esteem may encounter short-term fluctuations from extremely positive feelings to extremely negative feelings about themselves. The manner to display instabilities can be observed as a dispositional characteristic that relates with contextual aspects to result in certain patterns of fluctuations (Dryden, 2016; Kernis & Waschull, 1995). Therefore, the habit to depend heavily on personal and social bases of evaluation as a basis for determining one's overall self-worth is a vital factor in the development of an unstable self-esteem (Kernis & Waschull, 1995; Rosenberg, 1986; Zimmerman et al.; 2015).

3.1.6.5 Self-esteem enhancement

Self-esteem enhancement is a motive to maintain positive views of the self (Cervone & Pervin, 2013). Self-esteem can be enhanced from an early age on the basis of security, trust and unconditional love (Battle, 1990; Hewitt, 2002; Mruk, 2006). Reece (2014) is of the view that individuals are responsible for increasing or decreasing their self-esteem. One's self-esteem can be strengthened by improving individual competence as well as emotions of self-worth (Mruk, 2006). Low self-esteem affects employees' ability to acquire new skills and being effective team members, which could result in low productivity, whilst high self-esteem plays a key role to success, both personally and professionally (Reece, 2014). Many organisations are accommodating their employees to build their self-esteem by means of making employees feel appreciated, capable, efficient, suitable and protected. As such employers are empowering their employees to develop a sense of personal responsibility. Organisations are starting to introduce self-esteem training manuals to employee learning programmes (Reece, 2008; 2014).

3.1.7 Theoretical models of self esteem

There are many theoretical models that seek to explain the concept of self-esteem, however, not all of them will be discussed in this study. Theories that will be discussed in this section are: Epstein's Cognitive Experiential Self-Theory (CEST) (Epstein, 1973), the Evolutionary Approach: Sociometer Theory (Leary & Downs, 1995), Cognitive theories of career development (Guindon, 2010) and Battle's Self-Esteem Model (Battle, 1992).

3.1.7.1 Epstein's Cognitive Experiential Self-Theory (CEST)

Seymour Epstein's cognitive experiential self-theory (CEST) is one of the initial cognitive theories of self-esteem and still stands as a representative of this approach (Mruk, 2013). In the cognitive experiential self-theory, Epstein's (1973) views self-esteem as a basic human requirement (Guindon, 2010). As a basic requirement, it occupies a crucial role in one's life and is a motivational force both consciously and otherwise (Mruk, 2006). If one's self esteem is changed, Epstein (1980) indicates that this would influence the whole self-esteem. This theory is grounded on the notions of information (experience), organisation (concept information), representation (a system of concepts arranged hierarchically), and the process of development (Mruk, 2013). Self-esteem is conceptualised because of one's comprehending of the world and others and who one is, in relation to other people (Guindon, 2010). Epstein (1979) and Leitner et al. (2014) pointed out that individuals with low or high self-esteem respond differently to positive or negative feedback, thus, if success is entangled in self-esteem, then the probability of failure must be active.

Moreover, Epstein (1979) and Mruk (2018) identified two factors affecting self-esteem and these are acceptance/rejection and success/failure. In terms of acceptance/rejection, Mruk (2013) mentions that it is important to note that nurturance, care, attraction are fundamental features of acceptance, but fondness, respect and admiration are usually more common or suitable in a professional relationship. Epstein concluded that there are various ways of being rejected, like being devalued, ignored, marginalized, utilised, abandoned or mistreated, which can negatively impact self-esteem (Epstein, 1979; Kashdan et al. 2014). Thus, people generally deal with interpersonal events regarding whether one is respected by others (Mruk, 2013). Mruk (2013; 2018) refer to success as an achievement, therefore success is good for an individual's self-esteem.

This theory of self-esteem is centred on self-worth, places self-esteem between the two prime forces that direct the self: self-maintenance and self enhancement.

3.1.7.2 The Evolutionary Approach: Sociometer Theory

Evolutionary work in the social sciences has grown into popularity in the past years (Mruk, 2006). The sociometer theory was first established by Mark Leary and colleagues in 1995 (Leary & Downs, 1995). This theory assumes that human beings have a major need to belong in evolutionary history (Heatherton & Wyland, 2003). Leary (1999) views the sociometer theory as

a theory of self-esteem that measures the effectiveness in social relations and interactions that monitors acceptance and/or rejection from others. Mruk (2013) views this as a response to interpersonal relations and social status indicators that points to the probability of rejection or exclusion. Individuals who experience social exclusion may suffer from loneliness and receive lower social support, which may heighten the probability of psychological distress such as depression (Sowislo & Orth, 2013). On the other hand, research indicates that individuals who are deemed to have relational value are more likely to have higher self-esteem (Leary, 2004; Leary, Tambor, Terdal, & Downs, 1995).

3.1.7.3 Cognitive theories considering self-esteem

Cognitive theories of career development address a significant dimension of the career decision-making process on factors influencing how people think about themselves and the world (Guindon, 2010). Usually, it is the individual's cognitions, particularly one's sense of self-esteem that determines whether that person is willing and motivated to choose a career path. The major cognitive theories of career development are social cognitive career theory, cognitive information processing, and the social learning theory of career decision making.

Following is a discussion of the social cognitive theory.

3.1.7.3.1 Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT)

The social cognitive career theory is a useful career theory for addressing career concerns that incorporate self-esteem issues because low self-esteem tends to accompany low self-efficacy and negative outcome expectations (Guindon, 2010). Lent and Brown (1996) and Saifuddin (2015) refer to social cognitive career theory as a theory that incorporates the triadic reciprocal model, that was developed as part of social cognitive theory by Bandura (1986). Social cognitive career theory is developed to describe the complex connection between self-efficacy theories, aftermath expectations, and personal milestones in the career decision-making process (Bandura, 1986). Bandura (1986) clarifies that self-efficacy theories are people's judgements of their abilities to organise and perform courses of action needed to attain designated kinds of performances. These beliefs, of self-judgements are shaped both positively and negatively within four domains such as personal performance achievement, social persuasion, vicarious learning and physiological reaction and states (Bandura, 1986).

Gangloff and Mazilescu (2017) explain that higher self-efficacy and expected positive outcomes promote higher goals, which aid to mobilise and maintain performance behaviour or if one possesses high self-esteem. This is important in the workplace because it leads to higher

productivity. The goal is to help individuals experience and examine success experiences to strengthen their weak self-efficacy beliefs and low self-esteem. Self-efficacy beliefs play an essential part in the career decision-making process, and they tend to move either toward or away from tasks, and occupations, depending on the person's belief in his or her capacity to develop capabilities required for successful performance. Self-efficacy beliefs provide answers to "Can I do it?" questions (Bandura, 1986; Cook & Artino, 2016).

3.1.7.3.2 Cognitive Information Processing (CIP)

The Cognitive Information Processing (CIP) model provides an understanding of the process of career decision. This approach stems from the three-factor Parsonian model of career decision making (such as, develop self-tolerance and work-related knowledge to arrive at a career choice), but also includes current knowledge about cognitive information processing useful for counsellors in that it provides additional layer to understanding the process of career decision making (metacognitions). Four assumptions provide the theoretical foundation of the CIP model (Peterson, Lumsden, Sampson, Reardon & Lenz, 2002):

- First, there is an interaction between cognitive and affective processes that occurs during and career decision,
- Second, available cognitive operations and knowledge determine an individual's capacity for solving career problems,
- Third, knowledge structures and career development are always evolving,
- Fourth, the aim of career counselling is to enhance the client's information processing skill set.

The cognitive processes described by this model occur in four career decision-making domains which are presented as a pyramid such as self-knowledge, work-related knowledge, decision making skills as well as metacognitions (Sampson, Peterson, Lenz & Reardon, 1992).

Self-knowledge can be addressed through formal or informal values assessment. Work-related knowledge can be addressed with informational interviews or internships and negative self-talk, especially as may be related to negative self-esteem, may best be addressed through counselling. Metacognition adds to traditional foundation of most career theories by incorporating self-talk, self-awareness, and the monitoring and control of cognition (Doyle, 2013).

3.1.7.3.3 Social Learning Theory of Career Decision Making (SLTCDM)

The Social Learning Theory of Career Decision Making (SLTCDM) is based on the applications of Bandura (1977) which assume that people's personalities and behavioural repertoires can be clarified most useably based on their exclusive learning experiences while still recognising the role played by innate and development processes (Mitchell & Krumboltz, 1996). SLTCDM also asserts that people are brilliant, problem solvers, who always attempt to comprehend the reinforcement that surrounds them and who in turn manage their environments to suit their own purposes and requirements (Mitchell & Krumboltz, 1996).

The SLTCDM identifies four factors that impact career decision making and these are historic endowments and special abilities, environmental circumstances and events, instrumental and associative learning experiences, and task approach skills. These four factors influence people in different ways. There are four ways in which they can influence career decision making, firstly, they lead to the formation of self-observation generalisations which are overt or covert statements evaluating one's actual or vicarious performance or self-assessments of one's beliefs and interests (Mitchell & Krumboltz, 1996), or conclusion regarding one's self esteem. Secondly, career decision making can be labelled as worldview generalisation. These are generalisations about the nature and operation of the world formulated from learning experiences. The accurateness of worldview generalisation is reliant on the learning experiences modelling such generalisations. Clearly, inaccurate worldview generalisation can lead to negative self-esteem. Thirdly, influencing career decision making is the development of additional task approach skills. Finally, the four factors influencing career decision making lead individuals to take actions related to their career planning.

3.1.7.4 Battle's model of self-esteem

Battle's model will be used to guide the research since it has been validated in the South African setting and self-esteem can be tested in a working environment using this model. Battle's model (1992) is relevant to this study, because the model provides a comprehensive framework of self-esteem in a social work environment. The workplace is a typical socially embedded environment; hence the construct of self-esteem of individuals needs to measure to determine how it affects productivity. Battle (1982; 1992) upholds the multidimensional theoretical technique as a convenient tool of defining the concept of self-esteem.

The construct self-esteem by Battle (1992) consists of several facets or dimensions. Battle (1992) characterises these dimensions as follow: for children there is a differentiation between

general, academic, social, and parent-related self-esteem; and for adults, self-esteem is categorised into general, social and personal self-esteem. General self-esteem refers to a person's view and feelings regarding his or her overall significance (Battle, 1992). Social self-esteem applies to an individual's view and emotions regarding his or her relationship quality with friends, associates and partners. Socially structured feelings may increase or lower self-esteem, which can happen at projected intervals and locations depending on a person's specific role obligations (Battle, 1992). Therefore, social self-esteem seems to be reliant on how people control their feelings during life happenings (Van Dyk, 2016). Personal self-esteem is the component that indicates an individual's most inherent perceptions and emotions in relation to his or her self-worth. Finally, Battle's (1992) model specifies that self-esteem is made up of three dimensions, namely general, social and personal self-esteem, which equally represent overall self-esteem. Figure 3.4 provides an overview of Battle's model of self-esteem.

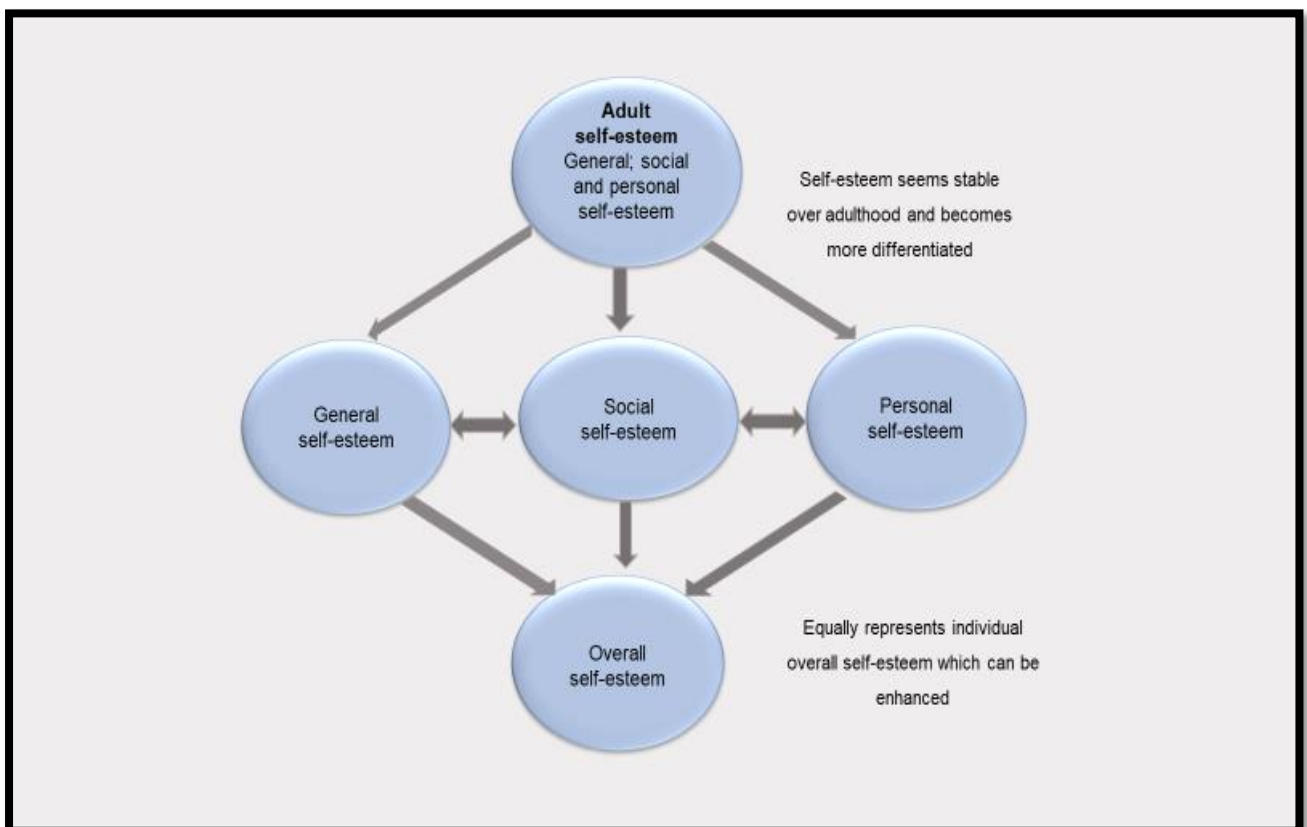


Figure 3. 4: Battle's model of self-esteem (Battle, 1992, p. 33)

(a) The core dimensions and underlying principles of self-esteem

The essential dimensions and underlying values contained in Battle's (1992) model of self-esteem include, general self-esteem, social self-esteem and personal self-esteem. These dimensions form types of self-esteem during adulthood. In addition, Battle (1982) highlights that each dimension of self-esteem consists of various aspects, more specifically, cognitive

(thoughts regarding self-evaluation), affective factors (emotions) and interpersonal needs (social acceptance by others) needs are relevant to self-esteem, as indicated in Figure 3.5 below.

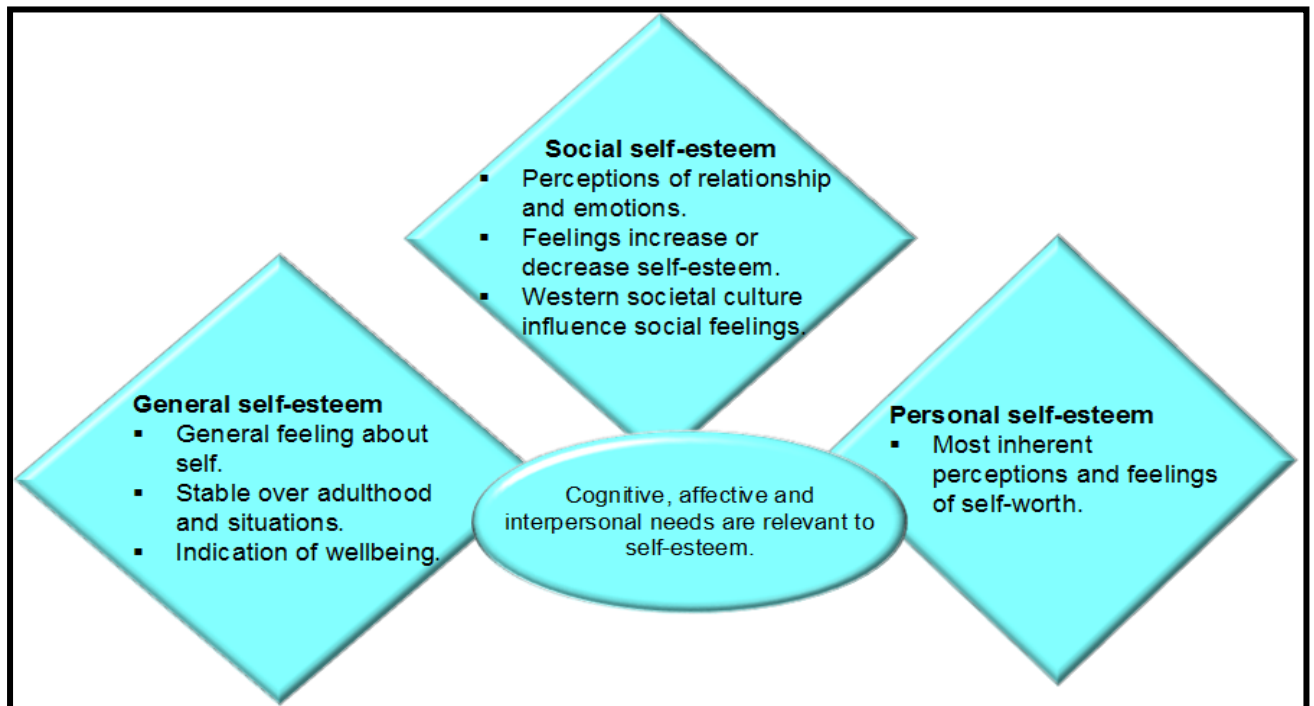


Figure 3. 5: The essential dimensions and underlying values of Battle's (1992) model (Battle, 1992, p. 35)

Battle's model highlights all the underlying principles which help shape the self-esteem of an individual:

General self-esteem includes these underlying principles:

- *Sense of psychological well-being*

The sense of psychological well-being is largely based on psychological need for acceptance and belonging within one's social group, the desire for efficacious and authentic functioning, competence and achievement in comparison to other members of one group (Battle, 1992; Stets & Burke, 2014).

- *Self-efficacious functioning in terms of cultural criteria of success and happiness*

Self-efficacious constitute the degree to which people perceive that they can have an effect on the environment (Stets & Burke, 2014). Furthermore, according to Doménech-Betoret

(2017), self-efficacy influences the amount of stress and anxiety that people experience as they engage in an activity. Individuals attach self-efficacy with the success and happiness depending largely on their ability to perform a task.

- *Self-acceptance/self-expression*

Self-esteem also encompasses self-acceptance which is influenced by cognitive evaluations and feelings of acceptance by others. Pramono and Astuti (2017) argue that self-acceptance entails holding a positive regard for or attitude toward oneself, including one's past life experiences. Self-acceptance does not rely on the approval of others or personal achievements (Pramono & Astuti, 2017).

Social self-esteem includes these main principles:

- *Acceptance/belongingness*

Given that social and group identities offer a sense that one is valuable and is socially integrated, it can raise feelings of being a worthwhile member in society (Stets & Burke, 2014). In this dimension, the individual develops self-esteem as a social group recognize, approve and places a sense of value and accepts the individual.

- *Evaluation and Comparison*

Self-esteem also encompasses evaluation by self and others. Self-appraisal and comparison with other people or ideal self-regarding accomplishments, and individually efficacious functioning (Battle, 1992; Davids, 2015).

- *Efficacy*

Individuals measure the effect of their actions and their understanding thereof help create their efficacy beliefs (Davids, 2015). The verification of social/group identities provides a general sense of being found worthy and valuable, the verification of role identities provides a sense of efficacy or competency, and the verification of person identities generates the feeling that one is being one's true self (Stets & Burke, 2014).

Personal self-esteem includes the following dimensions:

- *Emotional self-awareness*

An individual emotional awareness contributes to their personal self-esteem. Increasing awareness enhances people and organisations to function fluently without so many unnecessary misunderstandings or problems between individuals (Mäkinen, 2014).

- *Mood/state (anxiety, depression, upset, hurt, worry)*

Mood/state play a significant role in the way a person feels as such affect the person's self-esteem. More so, Battle (1992) and Biolcati (2017) also posit that self-esteem incorporates the perceptions or cognitive self-evaluations, and subjective feelings that the individual possesses about his or her own worth - the self being a composite of an individual's feelings, hopes, fears, thoughts, and views of who he or she is, what he or she is, what he or she has been, and what he or she might become in terms of the self and in terms of his or her relationship to others.

Battle's model indicates that the aspect of self-esteem number of facets or dimensions. The author describes the psychological roots of self-esteem mentioning the different ideologies that are pivotal in explaining the development of self-esteem. Furthermore, the Battle's model discusses the development of self-esteem as a socially constructed emotion.

(a) The psychological roots of self-esteem

The psychological explanation of self-esteem is entrenched in four ideologies, namely acceptance, evaluation, comparison and efficacy (Battle, 1992). The self primarily is underdeveloped and not complete but as the child matures and interacts with important individuals the self becomes progressively more differentiated (Battle, 1992; Fedorenko & Bykova, 2016). That is, the self becomes more distinguished as an individual with age or maturity. The self therefore represents the result of an individual's essential composition and encounters of life (Battle, 1992). When established, cognitive and affective self-evaluations of self-worth and self-efficacy tend to be rather stable and resistant to transformation (Battle, 1992). These self-evaluations inspire the person to choose goals and objectives that are constant or closer to them. Where children are concerned, parents have a huge effect on self-development (self-esteem) accordingly, the child's self reflects the evaluations of his or her

parents. Considering this information, it seems as if the self-system is imbedded in interpersonal relationships and is largely shaped by reflected appraisals (Battle, 1992; Potgieter, 2012).

(b) Self-esteem as a socially constructed emotion

The measurement of self-esteem pursues to encapsulate the certainty of life happenings of the self from the person's viewpoint within a specific situation (Battle, 1992). Many scholars are of the view that individual self-esteem can be enhanced in both children and adults (Battle, 1992; Fedorenko & Bykova, 2016; Mruk, 2006; Reasoner & Gilberts, 1991). It could be improved by developing an individual's competence as well as emotions of self-value (Mruk, 2006), through positive self-reinforcement; behaviour modelling (Mruk, 2018; Reasoner & Gilberts, 1991) and during individual or group settings (Mruk, 2006). However, Mruk (2006) found that group sessions tend to be more successful to enhance a person's self-esteem.

In this theory, the argument is that as a socially created and experienced emotion, self-esteem is an indication of welfare and prosperity instead of a psychological attribute. Self-esteem is an extent of an individual's hopes of perfect circumstances and therefore an individual's inspiration to address matters and other people. A good and strong self-esteem displays a positive and vital personal and social identity, which is a sense that a person is positioned securely in the social world, adapt to meeting its challenges, ready to play a part in life with others, and capable of balancing social demands and personal aspirations (Battle, 1992; Hewitt, 2002). A perfect sense of individuality (of which self-esteem is a crucial measure) is crucially important because it is critical to understanding role taking, the capability to perceive and to identify with another individual's viewpoint (Akkus et al., 2017; Hewitt, 2002). The comprehension of self-esteem in a working environment builds the emotional connection between the self and others. A review of self-esteem in a work environment stimulates individuals to assess the nature and importance of the social bond and the affective connection they have with other people (Hewitt, 2002; Kanfer & Klimoski, 2002; Leão et al., 2017).

3.1.8 Variables influencing self-esteem

Individual's self-esteem is influenced by various variables such as age, gender, race, and marital status and will be discussed briefly in this section.

3.1.8.1 Age

Mogale (2015) and Orth, Trzesniewski and Robins (2010) carried out an investigation on self-esteem development from young adulthood to old age and discovered that middle-aged individuals have sort of higher levels of self-esteem than older people. Research shows that men and women display high self-esteem throughout childhood, but self-esteem decrease in young adulthood, increases again in adulthood and then drops in old age (Josephs, Markus & Romin, 1992; Robins & Trzesniewski, 2005; Schaffhuser et al., 2017). Nonetheless, there is a growth in self-esteem across generations (Fedorenko & Bykova, 2016; Gentile, Twenge & Campbell, 2010; Twenge & Campbell, 2001). This growth is as a result of more stable working and family circumstances, developed romantic relationships, a peak in success and a feeling of domination over the self and the environment (Potgieter, 2012).

Orth et al. (2010) and Rubio (2014) assessed the development of self-esteem from young adulthood to old age. They discovered that self-esteem escalates during young and middle adulthood, reaching the top at about age 60 years, and then deteriorates at an old age (Orth et al., 2010). Robins, Trzesniewski, Tracy, Gosling and Potter (2002) and Schaffhuser et al. (2017) stated that investigations on self-esteem development has produced varying findings. Fedorenko and Bykova (2016) and Robins et al. (2002) discovered that self-esteem gradually increases throughout adulthood. Therefore, the evidence regarding self-esteem across generations appears to be inconsistent (Sowislo & Orth, 2013).

3.1.8.2 Gender

The development of self-esteem seems to be influenced by gender with men displaying a higher self-esteem than women (Zeigler-Hill & Wallace, 2012). Orth et al. (2010) found that females had lower self-esteem than males in young adulthood. This is collaborated by research by Ferreira and Coetzee (2010) which indicates that men have a considerably higher level of self-esteem than women counterparts. Ismail (2015) also found that females display lower self-esteem than males. Interestingly, the results from a recent study by Van Dyk, (2016) also indicates that males scored the highest on self-esteem, although most participants were females. Males seem to be more inclined to experience higher levels of self-esteem in comparison to females (Van Dyk, 2016).

Although most research shows that men have a higher self-esteem than women, there are a few studies that prove otherwise. Ferreira (2012) found that females experienced higher levels of self-esteem. The finding that the female participants attained a considerably higher mean score

for self-esteem, indicates that they had a more positive self-image than the male respondents (Ferreira, 2012). Erol and Orth (2011) argued that there are no gender differences on self-esteem. Orth et al. (2010) suggest that gender regulates the direction of self-esteem across the life span. Finally, research regarding different generations and self-esteem appeared inconclusive (Sowislo & Orth, 2013), while gender appears to moderate some behavioural outcomes of self-esteem (Zeigler-Hill & Wallace, 2012).

3.1.8.3 Race

The development of self-esteem seems to be influenced by race (Bleidorn et al., 2016; Coetzee, 2008; Ferreira & Coetzee, 2010). The discoveries by Ferreira and Coetzee (2010) show that white people have considerably lower levels of self-esteem than their African counterparts. These findings by Ferreira and Coetzee (2010) match the outcome of the findings drawn by Orth et al. (2010) and Schaffhuser et al. (2017), that black people (in comparison to white people) have been discovered to possess higher self-esteem while younger. On the other hand, at a certain time in adulthood, black human beings display quite a rapid reduction in self-esteem than white people (Fedorenko & Bykova, 2016; Orth et al., 2010).

3.1.8.4 Marital Status

Self-esteem has been found to positively correlate with marital satisfaction (Shackelford, 2001; Zeigler-Hill et al., 2015). Orth et al. (2010) alleged that being married enhances self-esteem during early adulthood. Individuals within a happy and stable marital life have higher self-esteem (Amato, 2001; Amato & Keith, 1991; Baker & Ben-Ami, 2011; Chung et al., 2014).

Summary of self-esteem

In summary, many scholars define self-esteem and provided a broad range of these definitions. Individuals develop self-esteem early in life (Guindon, 2010; Reece, 2008; 2014). For the purpose of this study, self-esteem will be defined as a positive self-worth, self-concept or self-appreciation comprising of feelings and emotions concerning the self, taking into consideration standards by which one judges oneself, an estimate, an emotion, and as the experience that we are appropriate to life and to the requirements of life. Self-esteem develops due to two sources, the internal source of a sense of achievement and an external source of affirmation from others.

Various theoretical models relevant to the construct of self-esteem were discussed. For the purpose of this study, the model of Battle (1992) were adopted because it explains on how different aspects of self-esteem help shape an individual's self-esteem which is critical in understanding different employees' self-esteem and their career path. Some ways to develop individual's self-esteem exist in the literature and the enhancement of self-esteem which is likely to promote employer/employee relationship in a working environment were also discussed. Moreover, various types, levels and stability of self-esteem were discussed.

This study focuses on self-esteem and career anchors in the workplace. Following is a discussion on career anchors.

3.2 CAREER ANCHORS

Schein (1978) describes a career anchor as a sequence of self-perceived talents, values and motives, which help to direct, constrain, stabilise and accommodate an individual's career. The career anchor supports a person's internal career as drastic inspiring changes are achieved in the external career due to the turbulence of the postmodern society (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2016).

3.2.1 Conceptualisation of careers

The word career is derived from the French word "carriere" meaning a race course (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2016). Hsu, Jiang, Klein and Tang, (2003) and Schein (1996) differentiate between the internal and external career.

(a) Internal careers

Internal career anchors refer to a person's self-concept and are understood in terms of non-monetary incentives such as autonomy at work and job security (Hsu et al., 2003). Schein (1996; 2013) explains the internal career as including a subjective sense of understanding where one is heading with one's career as opposed to the external career, which consist of the formal phases and roles stipulated by organisational policies and societal perceptions of what one can anticipate in the work arena. Schein (1996; 2013) suggests that a career anchor is at the centre of the internal career: the career anchor holds together the internal career during uncertainty and dramatic changes in the external career. Internal is anchored by the individual's self-image of his/her capabilities, values and motives, while external encompasses "the real steps that are needed by a career or an organisation to progress through that career" (Schein, 2006).

(b) External career

External career anchors refer to the real steps that are needed by an employee to progress through an occupation (Schein, 2006, 2013). Hsu et al. (2003) explain that external career anchors refer to the set of career anchors which are centred more on the extent to which people perceive that their organisation directly satisfies their internal career anchors by means of benefits and incentives. Most external careers involve a period of training where individuals are assessed to determine whether those individuals have skills and personal characteristics to do the job (Schein, 2013).

3.2.2 Conceptualisation of career confidence

Career confidence is the composition of career decision making and planning (Ramasamy & Nithyanandan, 2016). This applies to the degree to which people feel a sense of self-efficacy to overcome obstructions as they strive to apply their occupational goals (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2016). Career confidence is characterised by being productive, reliable, proud and self-confident (McMahon, Watson & Bimrose, 2012). Self-confidence is having confidence in oneself and if applied in the career development perspective it would deal with the degree of certainty in choosing a career (Ramasamy & Nithyanandan, 2016). Another related phenomenon in career confidence is that it deals with stressors individuals may encounter such as learning a new skill, unemployment, health problems and family crisis (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2016). Thus, career confidence is state of being certain that a prediction is correct or that a chosen course of action is most effective (Ramasamy & Nithyanandan, 2016).

3.2.3 Conceptualisation of career anchors

Career anchors refer to a sequence of self-perceived talents and capabilities, values, and intentions that influences an individual's career-related choices (Schein, 1975; 1996; 2006; 2013). The concept of career anchors is appropriate for guiding career development practices especially in today's changing work arena (Riggio, 2013). The origin of the concept of career anchors can be credited to Edgar Schein in the 1960s and 1970s (Schein, 1993). Schein (1990) noted that career anchors are best comprehended in terms of how career decisions and motives enable a person to gain more life experiences. As such, Schein (1996) believe that career anchors offer the organisation a workable structure in terms of what to organise when it comes to career development opportunities that are in line with workers' career choices (Coetzee & Bergh, 2009).

In today's turbulent environment, the concept of a career anchor becomes increasingly relevant as many people are affected by layoffs and must decide what to do next in their careers (Schein, 1996). Subsequently, Schein (1990) posits that career anchors have become an essential construct in career development because such anchors can either hamper or improve both career preferences and decisions to change careers. Schein (1996) identified eight career anchors: managerial competency; technical/functional capability; security; autonomy and independence; entrepreneurial ingenuity; pure challenge; service/dedication to a cause; and lifestyle integration.

Schein (1996) argues that at a certain point in the career development process, a person will normally begin to make career decisions that are connected to the expression of their dominant career anchor. To this note, Schein (1990) explains that career anchors are vital in that they can facilitate individual's career choices and decisions. Ndzube (2013) indicates that an individual who has well developed career anchors is likely to exhibit confidence and competent qualities which are fundamental for career development interventions. The more confidence a person has in his or her capabilities to finish a task, the less likely he or she will experience uncertainty and the more likely that individual will explore career prospects (Hellmann, 2014).

Career anchors offer the organisation a workable structure in terms of how to organise career development opportunities that are in line with employees' career choices (Coetzee & Bergh, 2009). Schein (1990) notes that career anchors are best comprehended in terms of how career decisions and motives enable a person to gain more life experiences. Career anchors create an essential aspect of choices concerning career development and personal life (Coetzee & Bergh, 2009). Managers and practitioners must take into consideration incorporating career anchors in career development support programmes and career discussions to reinforce proactive career motivational attitudes and behaviour (Mogale, 2015). Furthermore, Coetzee and Schreuder (2011) state that career anchors are fundamental constructs that offer a useful framework for career self-awareness, the development of career development opportunities and career development management. Career anchors uphold endeavours to facilitate peoples' personal development, promotion and achievements (Efklides & Maraitou, 2013). Thus, career anchors play a significant role in the career development of an individual. Table 3.3 provide definitions of career anchors from different authors:

Table 3. 3

Definitions of career anchor

Author	Definition
Schein (1978:125)	Describes career anchors as the consequence of interaction between a worker and their workplace, these factors combine to assist in career decision making.
Schein (1990:9; 1996:14)	Defined careers as the person's total self-concept, which encompasses personal traits involving motives, talents, capabilities, basic values and needs that are associated with career development.
Erdoğan (2004:156)	Career anchors encourage a person's self-discovery and enhance the organisation's return on investment.
Leong, Rosenberg and Chong (2013:525)	Career anchors are the portrayal of career decisions by which a person makes career choices and progresses in their career.
Cesinger (2011:11)	Career anchors incorporate work-related values and interests that are revealed as the person's preferences regarding particular types of occupation.
Van Maanen and Schein (2013:50)	Career anchors are non-monetary facets that help individuals to formulate their career preferences.

Table 3.3 above shows that career anchors have been defined differently by several authors. The key to the definitions above is that they are constructs that help shape or motivate career decisions or preferences. This study will use the definition by Cesinger (2011) who states that career anchors incorporate work-related values and interests that are revealed as the person's preferences regarding types of occupation. This definition is line with Schein's definition of career anchors who states that career anchor displays a sequence of self-perceived talents and capabilities, values, and intentions that influences an individual's career-related choices (Schein, 2013). This is deemed appropriate for this study because it points to the way different values and interests are regarded to help shape an individual career development by the preferences, they make which is vital for this study.

3.2.3.1 Career self-efficacy

Career self-efficacy, according to Schmitt (2012), encompasses a reflection of beliefs in an individual's abilities (to control one's life) and an individual's proficiency (to execute, cope persevere and be successful) and a general sense that life will turn out fine. Self-efficacy involves the belief in an individual's abilities to cope with a series of challenging demands in a variety of contexts (Bezuidenhout, 2011). The major factors that influence self-efficacy are task-oriented behaviours, a nurturing environment and positive cognitive factors. Hence, the career self-efficacy is the belief in self about a future course of a career action (Ramasamy &

Nithyanandan, 2016). Efficacy beliefs have been connected to career satisfaction and positive career development (Dacre Pool & Sewell, 2007; Van der Heijde & Van der Heijden, 2006).

3.2.3.2 Development of a career anchor

According to Schein (1990; 1993; 1996; 2013), as a career changes, the individual develops a career self-concept. A person's career self-concept moulds career selections affecting choices to move, shapes career ambitions, determines a person's perception of the future, influences worker reactions to work experiences and sways views of career accomplishment and satisfaction (Gagliardi, Petroni & Dormio, 2005; Herrbach & Mignonac, 2012). Career anchors affect how people interpret and negotiate their career experiences and deal with and get used to career shifts (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2013).

3.2.3.3 Self-concept

Career anchor is a developing self-concept of what a person sees him or herself as being good at, what person's needs and intentions are and what values govern person's career preferences (Feldman & Bolino, 1996; Schein, 1993; Van Vuuren & Fourie, 2000). Schein (1978; 1993; 1996) differentiates three aspects of the self-concept that together constitute a career anchor, namely:

- Self-perceived talents and abilities (based on real accomplishments in various work settings)
- Self-perceived motives and needs (based on prospects for self-tests and self-diagnosis in actual circumstances and on views from others)
- Self-perceived attitudes and values (based on real encounters between self and norms and values of the employing organisation and work context).

The following are unique features of career anchors (Schein, 1993; Schreuder & Coetzee, 2011):

- Career anchors assist individuals to define their skill and their worth;
- They formulate in the elementary stages of an individual's career (5-10 years of experience) as the individual begins to understand the aspects of work the individual enjoys the most;
- They assist to guide decisions about shifting jobs; and
- They form a source of steadiness across one's work life

Furthermore, self-concept is a multi-faceted schema and has three levels of identities (Densten, 2008):

- Individual level identities – define one’s distinctiveness and variation of self from others;
- Relational identities – define the self in terms of actual roles or associations and usually include others in the definition of one’s own self-identity; and
- The collective identities – define the self in terms of collectives like groups or organisations and which create a need to improve in oneself the qualities that are prototypical of these collectives.

3.2.3.4 Career insights

Career insight relates to the crystallisation of the career self-concept; it is defined as the extent to which individuals have realistic perception of themselves and the organisation, and the extent to which an individual relates these perceptions to career goals (Coetzee et al., 2016). Career insight entails self-knowledge – people being aware of their strengths and weaknesses - and it can be tied to a person’s occupational commitment, organisational commitment and the feeling of being citizens in the organisation (Feldman, 2002b; 2002c).

3.2.3.5 Career strategy

Career strategy is a pattern of activities aimed to assist individuals in achieving their career goals (Greenhaus et al., 2010). Greenhaus et al. (2010) further introduces seven categories to enhance career strategy:

- *Displaying individual’s proficiency* – individuals are evaluated on their performance when promotions decisions are taken, and performance depends on an individual’s achievements.
- *Working long hours* – this career strategy is utilised to show loyalty and the sense of responsibility to the organisation
- *Attaining new skills* – this is done to increase performance or to develop individuals for a new job. Individuals can acquire new skill through formal or informal learning
- *Taking advantage of opportunities* - individuals makes themselves visible within the organisation, networking and take on temporary duties
- *Developing an association with a colleague* – individuals with less experience develop a close relationship with a senior colleague who will be his/her mentor. Such relationships enhance the self- image of the senior colleague.

- *Strengthening one's image* – individual may gain positive feedback by being perceived as fitting in
- *Taking part in company politics* – individuals may support policies and regulations to demonstrate loyalty

3.2.3.6 Types of career anchors

Career anchor is constructed on feedback and self-insight, which develops with experience (Schein, 1978). At first, Schein (1978) identified five classifications of career anchors centred on basic values, aspirations and needs. The categories are: technical/functional competence (attainment of expert status among their colleagues); general managerial proficiency (preparedness to resolve complex, whole-of organisation problems and undertake consequent decision making); autonomy/independence (personal freedom in job content and situations); security/stability (long-term employment for health benefits and retirement alternatives); and entrepreneurial ingenuity (opportunity for creativeness and identification of new businesses, products or services).

Extensive research emerged in the 1980s and Schein (1996) identified three extra anchor categories: service/dedication to a cause (working for the greater good of organisations or communities); pure challenge (testing personal fortitude through precarious projects or physically challenging tasks); and lifestyle (attaining balance between personal and the family's wellbeing with occupational commitments).

Furthermore, the concept of a career anchor has become relevant as many people are affected by layoffs and must decide what to do next in their lives and with their careers (Schein, 1996; Schein & Van Maanen, 2013). Table 3.4 below provides an overview of career anchors conceptualised by Schein (1990), of which Coetzee and Schreuder (2008) have coupled with core workplace desires and values.

Table 3. 4

Overview of career anchors with core workplace desires and values (Coetzee and Schreuder, 2016, p.482)

Career anchor category	Career anchor	Description	Core desire from the workplace	Core value
Talent-based career anchors	Technical/ functional competence	Individuals with a technical/functional career anchors need to exercise their skills in fields in which they are competent as they aspire to be specialists and enjoy the challenges.	The individual desires challenging work that tests their talents, skills and abilities	Specialisation and development in one's specialty or field
	General managerial competence	Employees with general managerial competence anchors are keen to solve complex problems within the organisation and make subsequent decisions.	These individuals desire upward mobility in the organisational hierarchy to levels at which they have responsibility for integrating the activities of a work unit.	They value high income, power and influence and upward mobility within the organisational structures.
	Entrepreneurial creativity	Individuals are driven by a creative urge to develop their own businesses, products or services, with ownership a priority, and money a measure of success.	Opportunities to create their own businesses, products, or services.	Power, freedom, wealth, success, and public visibility and recognition.
Motives and needs based career anchors	Autonomy/ Independence	Individuals need to define their work in their own ways and according to their own standards.	These individuals desire time-bound work within their areas of expertise thereby allowing them to accomplish associated tasks on their own terms.	Freedom in their work to demonstrate their competence.
	Security/ stability	Individuals are motivated by tenure in an organisation and by financial security.	Job tenure and security, intrinsic satisfaction provide by the content of their work, predictable performance.	Individuals value recognition for steady performance and loyalty to the organisation.

Career anchor category	Career anchor	Description	Core desire from the workplace	Core value
	Lifestyle	Individuals with a lifestyle anchor see their careers as part of their total style of living which includes their personal and family factors.	The individuals place importance on personal and family concerns.	They see success as determined by all these factors and not just by occupational success. Their identities revolve round the total life situation rather than a particular job or organisation. They need flexible work situations that allow them to integrate self-development and family requirements.
Attitudes and values-based career anchors	Service/ dedication to a cause	Individuals with a service/dedication to a cause anchor need to be involved in work that they see as something of value, rather than doing work that requires specific talents or skills.		They value working with people, serving humanity, or improving the environment, and are drawn to the helping professions, such as nursing, medicine, social work, teaching and the ministry, as well as jobs in business management
	Pure challenge	Individuals with a pure challenge anchor thrive on testing themselves to the ultimate by achieving the impossible. Success means solving problems that seem impossible.	They seek obstacles, competition, and challenge in any area of work, whether strategic high-level management, interpersonal relations, or competitive sport. If their work does not provide the novelty, variety and difficulty that test them, they get bored and become problems to themselves and to others.	Power and influence to remain competitive.

3.2.3.7 Characteristics of career anchors

A career anchor becomes a concern if the person feels his or her actual self is not involved in the work (Schein, 1996). Table 3.5 highlights the characteristics of career anchors.

Table 3. 5

Characteristics of the eight career anchors (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2011, p. 128)

Career anchor category	Career anchor	Description	Core desire from the workplace	Core value
Technical/functional competence		Identity formed around content of work – the technical/functional abilities in which the person excels Complex work that permits application of expertise and rewards Need to be remunerated according to skills level - Prospects for self-development in a certain field		
General-managerial competence		High levels of accountability and complex, diverse, and integrative work Leadership prospects that permit contribution to organisation, measure self by remuneration level, Rewards Bonuses for accomplishing organisational objectives - Promotion built on merit, measured performance, or outcomes. Advancement to a position of higher responsibility.		
Autonomy/ Independence		Clearly demarcated, time-bounded types of work within the sphere of expertise Clearly outlined goals which permit means of attainment to the individual and do not want close supervision - Rewards, rewarded for performance, bonuses, autonomy-oriented promotion systems		
Security/stability		Steady, reliable work and concerned about the circumstances of the work and the composition of the work itself Prefer to be paid in stable, predictable increments centred on length of service Benefit packages which underscore insurance - Recognition for being loyal and stable		
Entrepreneurial creativity		Enjoy producing new products or services, establishing new organisations through financial guidance, or by taking over an existing business and reshaping it in one's image Obsessed with the desire to create, needing consistent new challenge - Rewards, wealth, ownership and freedom and power		
Service/dedication to a cause		Work towards some significant values of bettering the world in some way Prefer assisting careers (e.g. nursing, teaching, ministry), Rewards and fair pay Recognition for employee's contributions and prospects to move into positions with more influence and freedom		

Career anchor category	Career anchor	Description	Core desire from the workplace	Core value
Pure challenge		Pursue challenge for own benefit Jobs where one faces difficult problems regardless of the kind of problem involved Highly motivated, rewards, adequate opportunities for self-tests – Adequate opportunities for self-test		
Lifestyle		Desire to integrate the needs of the individual, family and career Flexibility and organisational attitude that respects personal and family concerns Rewards, company benefits that allow options for travelling or moving when family Issues, permit, part-time work, sabbaticals, paternity and maternity leave, day-care options, flexible arrangements.		

There are different characteristics of career anchors as shown by Table 3.5 which are suited for different people and their occupation.

3.2.4 Theoretical models of career anchors

Theories that will be discussed in this section include Holland's theory of personality types and occupational environments (Holland, 1973), Super's career development theory (Super, 1957), and Savicka's theory of career construction for life-designing (Savicka, 2013).

3.2.4.1 Holland's theory of personality types and occupational environments

Holland's theory was presented in 1959 and possibly the most widely recognised trait approach to careers. The primary foundation was that individuals choose situations and environments that satisfy their personality orientations (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2016). Holland (1973, 1996) perceives career choice as a match between personality and the workplace. According to Lewis and Zibarras (2013), Holland put forward an individual environment fit approach to assisting individuals select a career. He is one of the most powerful individuals in the field of career practice and his theory influences contemporary career theories (Savickas, 2013). Holland's (1973; 2013) version proposes that people are attracted to jobs that match their personal needs and search for environments that allows them to exercise their expertise and abilities.

Holland (1973) distinguished six personality types and six matching work environments (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2016). Table 3.6 outlines Holland's (1973) six personality types.

Table 3. 6

Holland's six personality types

Personality type	Preferences	Aversions	Personality	Occupation
Realistic (persistent, shy, stable, frank, genuine)	Handling of tools, machinery and animals.	Social occupation and educational activities.	Mechanical, agricultural and technical skills.	Pilot, bookbinder, hairdresser, bus driver, butcher, chef, surveyor.
Investigative (analytical, curious, critical, cautious)	Symbolic, creative examination of biological.	Social, persuasive and repetitive activities.	Scientific and mathematical skills.	Botanist, economist, pharmacist, statistician.
Artistic (emotional, feminine, intuitive)	Ambiguous, unsystematic activities, free.	Explicit, systematic and ordered activities.	Music, architect photography,	Actor, writer, designer, decorator and musician.
Social (friendly, kind, generous)	Developing and helping others.	Using materials or machines.	Skills in human relations.	Social worker, teacher, counsellor.
Enterprising (ambitious, impulsive, optimistic, self-confident)	Manipulate to reach goals.	Observational, and systematic activities.	Interpersonal and persuasive skills.	Attorney, auctioneer, businessman, buyer, banker, estate agent.
Conventional (defensive, inflexible, persistent)	Handling of records and numerical data.	Unsystematic and investigative activities.	Practical, efficient	Accountant, auditor, financial expert,

From discussion above and Table 3.6 there is a differentiation in individual personality types. Accordingly, different personalities exhibit different traits.

3.2.4.2 Super's career development theory

Super (1957) is best-known for his developmental theory (Lewis & Zibarras, 2013). His theory continues to influence contemporary career theory (Savickas, 2013). Super (1957) indicates that career development is a component of an individual's development. Fundamentally, Super (1990; 1992; 2013) perceives career development as a process encompassing the development and application of self-concepts' in occupational situations. Self-concepts are individuals own views of their personal characteristics which develops through interaction with the environment (Super, 1990; 1992; 2013). At each level, the person is concerned about specific matters and there will be specific tasks that they are concerned with (Lewis & Zibarras, 2013). The five life stages as outlined by McDonald and Hite (2016) are growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance and decline. These are presented as follows:

Super's career development theory will be used for this research because it is supported by most other research as it encourages modern career theory. Furthermore, Super's theory looks at an individual from a very young age until the individual is old. Super's stages are unique in that it is one of the few that looks at and attempts to explain personal growth and experiences over a lifetime interacting with occupational preferences.

Growth Stage (From Birth to 14 years)

Growth is the first stage of Super's career model and first exposure to work (McDonald & Hite, 2016). At this stage children develop their capabilities, attitudes and interests and form a general comprehension of the world of work (Shark, 2006). As such children develop concepts of themselves through adults who become role models (Super, 1992; 2013). The main responsibility of this stage is to establish a perfect example of the type of person one is and knowledge of the nature and meaning of work (McDonald & Hite, 2016). Curiosity drives children to explore and experience the world around them (Super, 1992; 2013).

Exploration Stage (Ages 15 to 24)

According to Super (1957), the exploration stage ranges from the age of 15 years to 24 years. Adolescents make uncertain career choices by exploring part-time or holiday work (Super, 1992; 2013). This stage consists of the efforts that people make to get a better idea of work-related information, select career alternatives, decide on careers, and begin to work (Sharf, 2013). At this stage, the individual tries out work with first jobs and explore self-concept and work (McDonald & Hite, 2016).

Establishment Stage (Ages 25 to 44)

Generally, establishment involves a trial period followed by a period of stabilisation (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2016). Trials include a succession of career changes before a final choice is made (Super, 1992; 2013). The individual is concerned with the establishment of their career path, settling down and advancing in that chosen career (Lewis & Zibarras, 2013). At this stage, the individual finds a place in their field of work and seek career advancement and recognition (McDonald & Hite, 2016).

Maintenance Stage (Ages 45 to 64)

Generally, maintenance involves continuing along the lines of the establishment stage (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2016). Individuals at this age are holding their own careers and developing themselves where necessary (Lewis & Zibarras, 2013; Super 2013). McDonald and Hite (2016) agree that the individual stays at the course and strives to maintain what he or she has achieved.

Decline Stage/Disengagement (Age 65 and onwards)

Generally, decline involves slowing down or changing work activities, or disengaging from work (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2016). At this stage individuals are decreasing their work involvement and planning their retirement (Lewis & Zibarras, 2013; Super, 2013). Other individuals are winding down and engage with roles outside work (McDonald & Hite, 2016).

3.2.4.3 Savicka's theory of career construction for life-designing

Savicka's (2005; 2013) theory of career construction for life-designing is a postmodern constructivist approach to career choice and development which concerns enabling individuals to draw up their own life plans instead of finding optimal fits between people and their environments. Individuals' careers are probably a central part of their lives and the career becomes the construction of meaning in a unique social context (Maree, 2010). The career is integrated in the person's lifestyle and career development forms part of the process of designing a life that can be experienced as acceptable by a person and that can be redesigned as requirements, interests, and experiences alteration (Maree, 2010; Schreuder & Coetzee, 2016).

The career life cycle is discussed in terms of the early, middle and late adulthood life stages of individuals (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2016) as presented below.

Early adulthood life stage

This stage is broken into two stages:

Stage 1: Emerging adulthood/exploration phase

During this phase the individual exits young adulthood and starts to explore life and work prospects in preparation for employment. Young adults are refining their career aspirations and proficiencies (as components of the self-concept) to make decisions about their career direction and building their career. The core psychological complications connected to the emerging adulthood/explorations phase include shaping the self-concept by understanding one's identity in the areas of love, work and worldviews, trying out numerous life probabilities and moving toward enduring decisions, coping with quarter-life crisis (25/28/30 years), attaining independence and responsibility toward self, and developing self-reliance or autonomy.

Stage 2: Early adulthood/establishment phase

During this phase the individual enters the adult world and make more solid and lasting decisions with regards to their occupations, friendships, values and way of life. At this stage people have some experience of work and they are concerned in strengthening their career decisions through trial and error. This phase also comprises the age 30 transition (age 28-33) which usually involves lifestyle alterations such as marriage and having children which impact on one's lifestyle and societal roles. Also associated with the adulthood establishment phase is the tendency for the individual to form a routine, make progress on objectives for the future and have broadened family responsibility (Levinson, 1986).

The middle adulthood life stage

This stage covers the transitions to midlife (age 40-45 years) and getting into middle adulthood (age 45-60 years). During the midlife transition individuals start assessing their lives. Some individuals make extreme life changes, such as divorce or a significant career shift. At this stage, individuals start to contemplate about death and begin to ponder about leaving a legacy. When individuals enter middle adulthood, they start envisioning choices about the future and possibilities of early retirement. Individuals may also focus on maintaining what they have built, or they might start committing to new tasks in terms of renewing their careers, lifestyle alterations and continue to consider the legacy they are leaving (Levinson, 1986).

The late adulthood life stage

At this stage, individuals start to think about life experiences, past accomplishments and the choices they have made. They might begin to withdraw from the professional career which may be indicated by a decline in a person's spirit and vigour in their occupational area (Hess & Jepsen, 2009). They might also devote some time to making peace with others and themselves. Individuals at this stage normally adjust to new life processes such as retirement from the workplace, lifestyle changes and health issues (Levinson, 1986).

3.2.4.3 Schein's model of career anchors

Schein's career anchor model is appropriate for guiding career development practices (Riggio, 2013). Schein's model of career anchors is applicable to this study since it has been used in the South African working environment and looks at different aspects that influence the development of an individual's career. When developing the model, Schein chose the term career anchors since he thought that talents, values and motives would elevate an individual back to a specific career path, like an anchor. Some career models put effort only on talents or on motivation and put less attention on values (Feldman & Bolino, 1996).

The construct career anchors have become important in career development (Schein, 1990), and it consists of eight career anchors. Wils, Wils and Tremblay (2010) establish the eight career anchors to be considerably associated with particular work values such as openness to transition (pure challenge, entrepreneurial ingenuity and autonomy and independence), self-transcendence (technical proficiency and service or dedication to a cause), self-enhancement (managerial proficiency) and conservation (security and stability and lifestyle).

Schein (1978; 1996; 2006; 2013) proposes that most individual's career self-concepts (motives and values) are aground into eight anchors. The need arose for Feldman and Bolino (1996; 2000) to rearrange the eight career anchors into three distinct groups: need-based, value-based and talent-based.

The need-based anchors include the following:

- Security and stability (feeling safe and secure and including long-term employment, health benefits and retirement opportunities).

- Autonomy and independence (capacity to work independently and make judgements). This anchor takes account of the individual's need for freedom in the job content and organisational circumstances.
- Lifestyle motivations (balancing a person's personal and family wellbeing with work obligations).

The value-based anchors comprise of the following:

- Pure challenge (assessing personal strength through unsafe projects or physically complex work).
- Service and dedication to a cause (the desire to integrate lifestyle, work, and family for the advantage of organisations or communities).

The talent-based anchors entail the following:

- Managerial competence (the capacity to solve difficult problems and undertake consequent decisions).
- Technical or functional competence (the desire to create technical or functional knowledge also include the accomplishment of an expert position among peers).
- Entrepreneurial creativity (the capacity to be innovative, build services and products).

Figure 3.6 shows how the career anchors discussed above are categorised into the three groups.


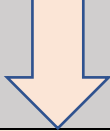

Need-Based	Value-Based	Talent-Based
		
Autonomy/Independence Clearly defined goals which allow the individual means of accomplishment Thrives on independence Autonomy oriented promotion system Security/Stability Stable, predictable work Steady pay/promotion in line with years of service Benefit packages with insurance, proper retirement program Recognition for loyalty Lifestyle Need to balance individual, family and career Values flexibility at work Organisation that respects personal and family concerns	Service/Dedication Wants to add personal value to the world in some manner Values having influence in the organization and society Will take opportunities in professions such as nursing, teaching or ministry Pure Challenge Highly motivated and seeks opportunities for self challenge Values work environments that will provide challenging situations to solve	Technical/Functional Seeks opportunities where technical expertise will be used Seeks opportunities for self development in the chosen field Payment must be linked to experience, level of education and knowledge General Managerial Competence Seeks leadership position which will allow contribution to organisation Likes challenging work that integrates the work of others Pay & bonuses based on merit and performance measurement Entrepreneurial Creativity Values freedom, wealth and power Thrives on creating new ideas, products or services Thrives on consistent challenge

Figure 3. 6: Integrated theoretical model of the construct career anchors (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2008, p. 48)

Furthermore, Schein (1990) distinguishes between eight career anchors as described below (Chang et al., 2012; Feldman & Bolino, 1996):

Career anchors that focus on the expression of work-related talents:

- *Technical or functional competence:* The person is mainly driven by the desire to exercise technical and functional expertise.
- *General managerial competence:* The person is predominantly inspired by the desire to aim for higher managerial positions and more concern to influence policymaking.

- *Entrepreneurial creativity*: The employee is mostly influenced by the desire to develop or establish something that is absolutely their own project.

Career anchors that focus on structuring one's work roles consistent with basic personal desires and personal life:

- *Autonomy and independence*: The employee is mainly driven to pursue work conditions that are extremely free of organisational restrictions.
- *Security and stability*: The individual is mostly encouraged by the need for job security and long-term connection to a single organisation.
- *Lifestyle*: The employee is largely persuaded to balance work with way of life.

Career anchors that focus on individuals' identification with their occupations and the cultures of their organisation:

- *Service or dedication to a cause*: The person is generally driven to assist others and shape up the world in some fashion.
- *Pure challenge*: The person is mainly inspired by the need to overcome barriers, overcome challenging tasks or issues and to win competition.

Furthermore, Schein (2013) differentiates the eight career anchors as depicted in Table 3.7.

Table 3. 7

Description of career anchors Schein (2013, p. 128)

Name of Career Anchor	Description of career anchor
Technical/functional (TF) competence career anchor	Individuals with this career anchor possess strong feelings of competence in an area – not essentially interested in management. It is the area of work that stimulates them. Individuals in this group strongly despise and fear general management, considering it as a clique, political sphere and waste of expertise and talent. Due to their disposal for general management roles, they tend to leave companies rather than promoted out of their area of specialisation.
General managerial (GM) competence career anchor	Individuals with this career anchor have an authentic drive to advance to roles of managerial accountability and rely on that they have the necessary skills and values to do so. In the beginning stages of their careers, they may take technical/functional roles, but look at these roles as interim stages to senior general management roles. They perceive their abilities and strengths as a combination of three areas: analytical competence; interpersonal competence; emotional competence.
Autonomy and independence (AU) career anchor	Individuals with this career anchor identify organisational entity to be limiting, absurd and interfering into their personal lives, and fashion careers which give them independence and autonomy. Individuals with this career anchor may also have high technical/functional competence, so behavioural occupation of this career anchor is not always visible. Promotion or aspiring to higher roles is not important to individuals with this career anchor. They usually compromise position status and salary versus lifestyle freedom.
Security and stability (SE) career anchor	Individuals with this career anchor manifest long-term security, good fringe benefits, basic job security, decent salaries and good pension and retirement provision. They believe that the organisation will take care of them usually evolve into organisation's standards. These individuals tend to sacrifice their individuality for the good of the organisation and it's not important for them to develop their own careers.
Entrepreneurial creativity (EC) career anchor	Individuals with this career anchor have a desire to develop or create something which is totally their own exclusive invention. They see themselves as creative. In the meantime, individuals with this career anchors may end up transitioning to managerial roles using four techniques: they get bored and turn the organisation over to others; they find it challenging managing a bigger organisation and are dismissed; they develop various ways in the organisation to articulate their creativity; they express creativity by means of a higher management role.
Service/dedication to a cause (SE) career anchor	Individuals with this career anchor seek to pursue work that achieves something of value, such as making the world a better place to live in, solving environmental problems, improving harmony amongst people, helping others, improving people's safety or curing illness. They may pursue opportunities even if it means leaving the organisation and may decline promotion opportunities if it takes them away from the valued activities.
Pure challenge (CH) career anchor	Individuals with this career anchor appreciate dealing with challenging tasks and complicated problems. They seem to be able reduce obstacles and go up against difficult opponents. For them, innovation, diversity and struggle become ends in themselves. Challenges may take the form of knowledgeable, planned, interpersonal or sporting trials amongst others.

There is a variation in career anchors that influence different people occupying different professional positions. As depicted by the table above, the different occupation has different driving factors that have an influence on their career development.

3.2.5 Variables influencing career anchors

There are different variables that influence career anchors, which are integral in an individual's career development. This section will discuss variables such as age, gender, race and marital status that influence career anchors.

3.2.5.1 Age

Just like in self-esteem, age is an influential factor in career anchors. Research by Ndzube (2013) states that age influences the career anchor view in that there are substantial differences in views of development of career anchors between the ages 25 and younger and 26 to 40. Schein (1990) explains that individuals' career anchors tend to change over time, and people revive their principal career anchors when they begin to stabilise in their professions or jobs – usually at the age of 30. However, in a study by Clinton-Baker (2013), the meaningful dissimilarities noted among the age groups propose that participants between 25 years and 29 years had a larger desire concerning general managerial proficiency, autonomy/independence and entrepreneurial ingenuity than the other two age groups. The age group between 31 to 45 years scored significantly higher than the age group between 18 to 30 years and 46 to 60 years on entrepreneurial creativity career anchor (Mogale, 2015). Oosthuizen, Coetzee and Mntonintshi (2014) discovered that the group aged 26 to 45 years scored higher than the age group of 25 years and younger on life style, autonomy, service or dedication to a cause career anchor. In the study, the group aged 31 to 45 years was well chosen to approach work as autonomous/independent and to have established an explicit goal about their professions although they are challenged by their employability status (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2008).

3.2.5.2 Gender

According to Ndzube (2013) differences exist in the career anchor preferences of males and females. Clinton (2015) indicates statistically significant differences between gender and COI variables. Coetzee and Schreuder (2008) established that the male participants showed a significantly high preference for general managerial competence, pure challenge and entrepreneurial creativity career anchors, while the female participants showed a higher preference for the security/stability career anchor. This is similar to a study conducted by

Ndzube (2013), where higher mean scores for males than those of females in Technical/Functional (TF), General Management (GM), Entrepreneurial Creativity (EC), Autonomy/Independence (AI), Service/Dedication (SD) and Pure Challenge (PC) were reported. Females, in contrast, showed a preference for security/stability and lifestyle anchors (Ndzube, 2013). The male participants valued autonomy and independence in the work environment as well as entrepreneurial creativity than their female counterparts (Clinton, 2015). In line with these findings, research by Coetzee et al. (2007) indicated that females tend to be more committed to organisations that respect personal and family concerns, whereas males tend to be more committed to organisations that provide them with the autonomy and independence that enable them to work independently.

3.2.5.3 Race

Coetzee and Schreuder (2008) established that there are substantial differences between race and career anchor preferences. Their discoveries display that Indians, coloureds and whites have a greater preference for entrepreneurial creativity, whilst Africans have higher mean scores for general managerial proficiency, lifestyle, security/stability and technical/functional proficiency. In contrast, Ndzube (2013) explain that the average score of Africans was higher than that of Indians in entrepreneurial creativity, service dedication to a cause, lifestyle, and autonomy and independence. Furthermore, Africans scored higher in pure challenge and security and stability than whites. Similar findings by Clinton-Baker, (2013) display that the African participants scored remarkably higher than their Indian counterparts on these career anchors excluding security/stability, demonstrating that they favour working in settings that allow them possibility to ascend the corporate ladder, work independently and build new products or services. The Indian participants seemed to be considerably more concerned with the organisation providing them with job security and steady, stable work. Oosthuizen et al. (2014) discovered that the coloured, Indians and white race groups have a solid career preference for the entrepreneurial ingenuity career anchor than the African race group.

3.2.5.4 Marital Status

A study conducted by Coetzee and Schreuder (2008) shows variances in career anchors between the participants that were single, married or widowed. The finding by De Villiers (2009) indicates that participants that are single are enthusiastic following careers that allow them to improve their capabilities and talents in complex environments in which they have the autonomy to build their own. This is in line with a study by Coetzee and Schreuder (2008) in that that participants that are widows seemed to have an outstandingly higher desire than participants

that are single or divorced. These participants pursue professions in which they can apply their talents and skills in making products, services and new ideas. On the other hand, participants that are married seemed to have a stronger desire for a career that offer constant and steady employment, benefits and attractive packages (De Villiers, 2009).

Summary of career anchors

In summary, Schein's (1993) career anchors look beyond ages and stages, indicating that individuals are pulled to various types of careers. His career anchors are a mix of the individuals' needs, values, motivation and skills that draw people to a type of career. The theoretical models relevant to career anchors were discussed. Furthermore, career self-efficacy, self-concept, types of career anchors, and career anchor enhancement exist in the literature. A conclusion can be drawn that career anchors are relevant in that they can reinforce individual's career choices and decisions (Schein, 1990).

3.3 INTEGRATION OF SELF-ESTEEM AND CAREER ANCHORS

The study intended to conceptualise the constructs of self-esteem and career anchors in the financial services industry. The research findings below provide integration overview of the two constructs:

Table 3. 8

Integration of self-esteem and career anchors (Source: Author's own compilation)

	Self-esteem	Career Anchors
	Self-esteem is a combination of a person's feelings, hopes, fears, thoughts, viewpoints of who he or she is currently, who the person was in the past and what he or she may become in the future (Battle, 1992:3).	Career anchor is a pattern of self-perceived talents, motives and values, which serve to guide, constrain, stabilise and integrate an individual's career (Schein, 1978:127).
Definition	Self-esteem is a positive self-worth or self-concept that is an important resource for coping (Landy & Conte, 2013).	Career anchors incorporate work-related values and interests that are revealed as the person's preferences regarding types of occupation (Cesinger, 2011).
Types	High and Low Self-Esteem (Guindon, 2010)	Technical or functional competence, General managerial competence, Autonomy or independence, Security or stability, Entrepreneur or creativity, Service or dedication, Pure challenge, Lifestyle (Schein, 2006)
Influencing variables	Age, Gender, Race and Marital status	Age, Gender, Race and Marital status
Measurement	Culture Free Self-Esteem Inventory (CFSEI 2-AD) (Battle, 1992)	Career Orientation Inventory (COI) of Schein (2006).

The table above reflects on the conceptualization of self-esteem and career anchors. Forming a greater part of the study is understanding how the two constructs self-esteem and career anchors are integrated in the financial service industry.

3.4 IMPLICATIONS FOR CAREER DEVELOPMENT

Organisations over the world are changing in terms of work structure, benefits and rewards systems as well as information technology (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2016). Career development can develop individuals to understand themselves better and can support team members to better understand each other and establish communication in work groups and possibly reduce conflict (Robbins & Judge, 2012). Self-esteem and career development research highlight the link between these two constructs, for example if positive career development and positive self-esteem are related, then career development programs become critical at essentially every level of career development (Guindon, 2010).

Kerka (1998) and Vanin (2015) posits that career development is affected by numerous influences and one of them is self-esteem. Rosenberg and Owens (2001) found that individuals with low self-esteem engross in self-protective behaviours, while high self-esteem individuals engross in self-enhancing behaviours. Guindon (2010) furthermore found that individuals with healthy and genuine high or medium self-esteem will be assertive rather than aggressive, than those with low self-esteem who tend to be avoidant and aggressive. Accordingly, it appears as if individuals with low self-esteem are less ambitious and would be less likely to achieve their goals. This is in line with a study conducted by Clarke (2013), who found that low esteemed individuals have fewer achievements in their career development, whereas high esteemed employees have their career development well-planned and they have high chances of achieving their goals.

It is also justifiable to recommend that when individuals encounter low self-esteem, they usually battle considering career options, establishing their career choices, or managing their careers once their choices have been implemented (Guindon, 2010). Super (1957) and U'Ren (2017) contended the choice of an occupation is the implementation of one's self-concept in an occupational role, then low self-esteem will cloud one's self-perceptions and negatively influence one's career decision-making process. Thus, today, most people acknowledge that positive career development experiences can foster positive global and contingent self-esteem, and low self-esteem can limit the person's opportunities for experiencing positive career situations by restricting to the person's perceived opportunities. The relationship between career development and self-esteem is strong and bidirectional (Niles, Jacob & Nichols, 2010).

Individuals are in charge of their own career development, they need to accept this responsibility and make plans for future development so that they can grow, learn, progress, and thrive in the employment market as well as in their personal life (Heller, 2009). With recent theories there are a series of activities individuals can do to manage their career with practitioner support (Lewis & Zibarras, 2013). Coetzee and Schreuder (2014) perceive individual's career anchors as influential career meta-capacities in current career development. The career anchor evolves in the development of career development and empowers the careerist to create options compatible with the individual's career identity (Ndzube, 2013; Schein, 1990).

Career development is an efficient, official, prospective way to obtain alignment between the individual's career needs, desires and the organisation's work-force requirements. It incorporates activities of the employees and managers with the policies and procedures of the organisation. It is a growing process related with the organisation's human resource structures rather than a one-time event (Ramasamy & Nithyanandan, 2016).

Schein's (1990, 1996) impression of career anchors is considered as a relevant meta-capacity in contemporary career development (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2014). Mogale (2015) maintain that organisational heads and practitioners must consider including career anchors in career development support programmes and career discussions to strengthen proactive career motivational attitudes and behaviour. Such career conversations can aim its attention on assisting these groups recognise how their career anchors influence their career decisions and how their career anchors relate to their capacity to manage their career development (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2014; Ndzube, 2013).

In conclusion, organisations that enhance development of employees may benefit in terms of reducing skills gaps, creation of opportunities within the workplace as well as improved job satisfaction and work engagement (Converse et al., 2012). This is in line with Coetzee and Schreuder (2011) who noted that organisations that involve their employees in career development planning, education and training initiatives may enhance their career satisfaction. Guindon, (2010) maintain that if positive career development and positive self-esteem are related, then career development programs become critical at essentially every level of career development. Betz (2001) postulated that self-esteem has a relationship with career development, particularly in the development of career goals. Thus, career development will benefit both the organisation and the employees themselves (Pieters, 2011). Although several researchers indicate that there is a direct link between self-esteem and career development as well as career anchors and career development, no single study was found within the South African context, specifically within the financial sector. Exploring the relationship between self-esteem and career anchors may contribute within a career development context.

3.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In line with the aims of this study, this chapter has defined and conceptualised the constructs of self-esteem and career anchors and these were linked to related theoretical models. The variables influencing self-esteem and career anchors such as age, gender, race and marital status were discussed. Lastly, their implications for the career development of individuals in the work environment were also presented.

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter outlines the research methodology that was applied to explore the relationship between self-esteem and career anchors. The methodology addressed in this chapter includes the composition of the research participants, measuring instruments, research procedure and statistical analyses. The research hypotheses are formulated, and the chapter concludes with a summary.

Quantitative research is used in this research study to assure valid inferences from the available sample data obtained from a large population in order to develop generalisation (Tredoux & Durrheim, 2013). Research design gives structure to a research study, allowing investigators to perform a scientific research on any phenomenon of interest (Landy & Conte, 2013). The research design is an important part of a research study (Spector, 2012). The key concepts on research design was discussed in chapter 1 and the study made use of exploratory, descriptive and explanatory research designs.

The empirical investigation will consist of the following steps:

- Step 1: Determination and description of the sample (research participants)**
- Step 2: Choice and motivation for the measuring instruments**
- Step 3: Administration of the measuring instruments**
- Step 4: Scoring of measurement instruments**
- Step 5: Formulation of the research hypotheses**
- Step 6: Statistical processing of the data**
- Step 7: Reporting and interpreting the results**
- Step 8: Integration of the research findings**
- Step 9: Formulation of research conclusions, pointing out on limitations and presenting recommendations**

Steps 1 to 6 are explained in this chapter and steps 7 to 9 are discussed in chapters 5 and 6 respectively.

4.1 DETERMINATION AND DESCRIPTION OF THE SAMPLE

In many instances, it is impossible to study the entire population hence drawing a sample can present satisfactory evidence of the population. The aim of sampling is to enhance limited resources such as time and money (Antonius, 2013). When collecting quantitative data, it is

essential to distinguish between a sample and population (Wilson, 2013). A sample is a subset of the population and population refers to the entire set of items or people that the researcher is interested in studying (Johnson, 2014).

The target population of this research study consisted of full-time employees permanently employed in a South African financial services organisation (n = 4000). These employees were chosen because they can provide information about the relationship between individuals' self-esteem and career anchors and its potential contribution to career development in the financial services industry.

A non-probability, convenience sample was drawn to achieve the objectives of this study. Convenience sampling is a non-probability sampling strategy that uses the most conveniently accessible people to participate in the study (Gray, 2014; LoBiondo-Wood & Haber, 2018). Convenience sampling is beneficial because it is affordable, easy and the subjects are readily available (Etikan, Musa & Alkassim, 2016). Another benefit of the non-probability sampling method is that the probability of selection of population elements is unknown (Schutt, 2012; Li, 2018). A limitation of convenience sampling is that it is likely to be biased (Etikan et al., 2016).

Only 77 participants completed the online survey, yielding a response rate of 1.925%. According to Beins and McCarthy (2018), a response rate of at least 1.68% is required for online surveys to be considered sufficient.

The profile of the sample is described according to the following demographical variables: age, gender, race and marital status. These variables were included because they are integral attributes that largely influence an individual's career development.

4.1.1 Composition of the sample by age

This section presents a report on the age distribution of the participants.

Table 4. 1

Age Distribution of Sample (n = 77)

Age				
Category	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
18 to 24 years old	8	10.4	10.4	10.4
25 to 34 years old	19	24.7	24.7	35.1
35 to 44 years old	25	32.5	32.5	67.5
45 to 54 years old	19	24.7	24.7	92.2
55 to 65 years old	6	7.8	7.8	100.0
Total	77	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.1 indicates that the age groups participants were between 18 and 65 years of age. The frequencies of the age group indicate that 32.5% of the participants aged between 35 and 44 years were in the majority in the sample. 10.4% comprised of participants aged between 18 and 24 years, 24.7% comprised of participants aged between 25 and 34 years and 45 to 54 years, whilst 7.8% comprised of participants aged between 55 and 65 years (n = 77). This is further illustrated in Figure 4.1 below.

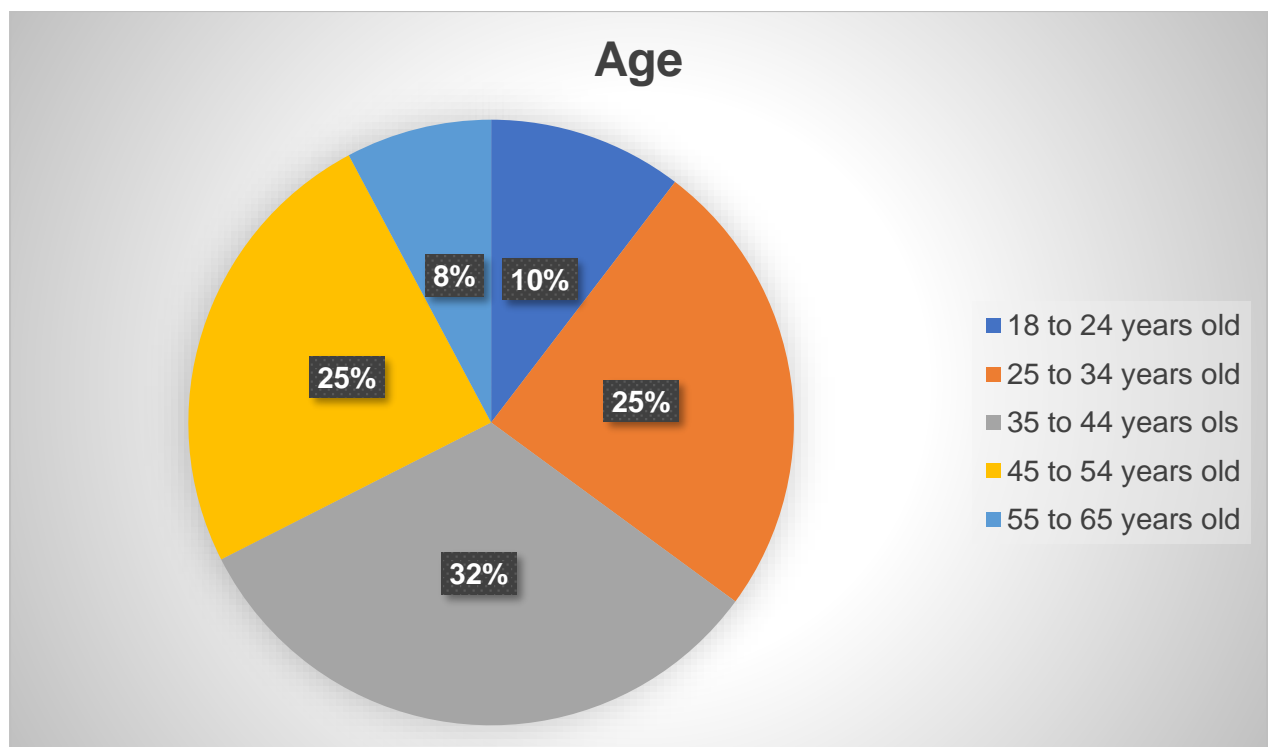


Figure 4. 1: Sample distribution by age (n = 77)

4.1.2 Composition of the sample by gender

This section supplies data on gender distribution of the participants.

Table 4. 2

Gender Distribution of Sample (n = 77)

Gender				
Category	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Female	44	57.1	57.1	57.1
Male	33	42.9	42.9	100.0
Total	77	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.2 indicates that the gender groups comprised 57.1% females and 42.9% males. It is thus evident that the sample consisted of slightly more females than males. This is further illustrated in Figure 4.2 below.

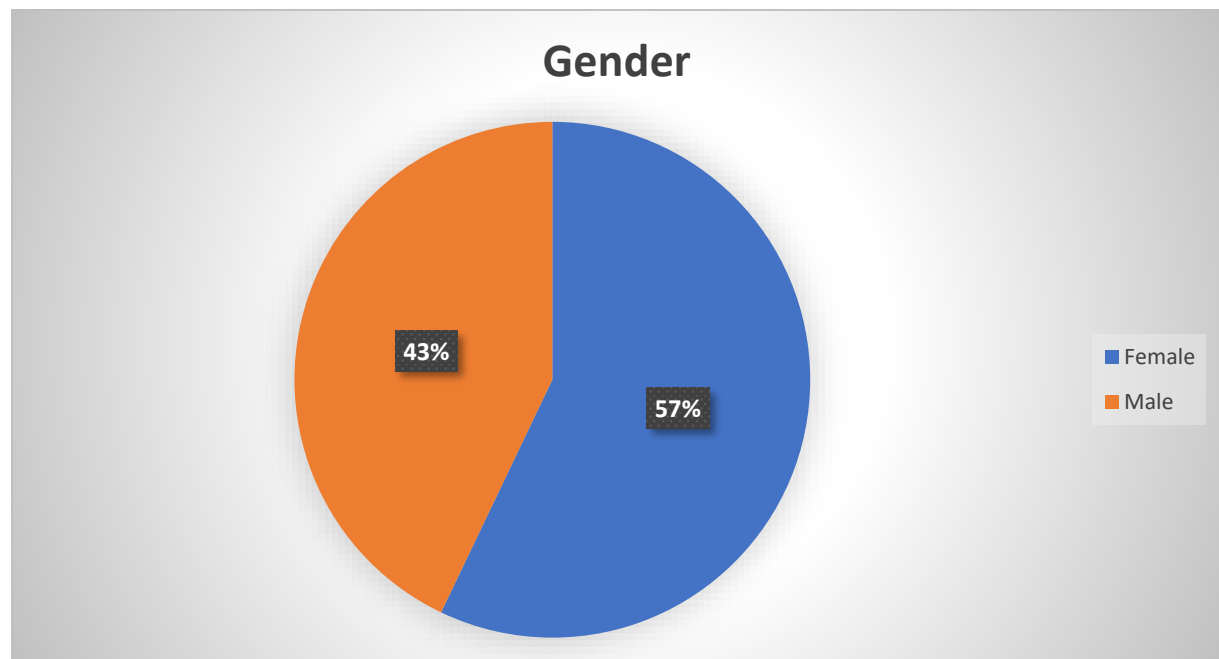


Figure 4. 2: Sample distribution by gender (n = 77)

4.1.3 Composition of the sample by race

This section provides information on race distribution of the participants.

Table 4. 3

Race Distribution of Sample (n = 77)

Race				
Category	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Black African	15	19.5	19.5	19.5
Coloured	13	16.9	16.9	36.4
Indian or Asian	9	11.7	11.7	48.1
White	34	44.2	44.2	92.2
Other	6	7.8	7.8	100.0
Total	77	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.3 indicates that the racial groups comprised of 44.2% white, 19.5% black African, 16.9% coloured, and 11.7% Indian or Asian participants (n = 77). The frequencies indicate that white (44.2%) participants were predominant in the sample. This information is further illustrated in Figure 4.3 below.

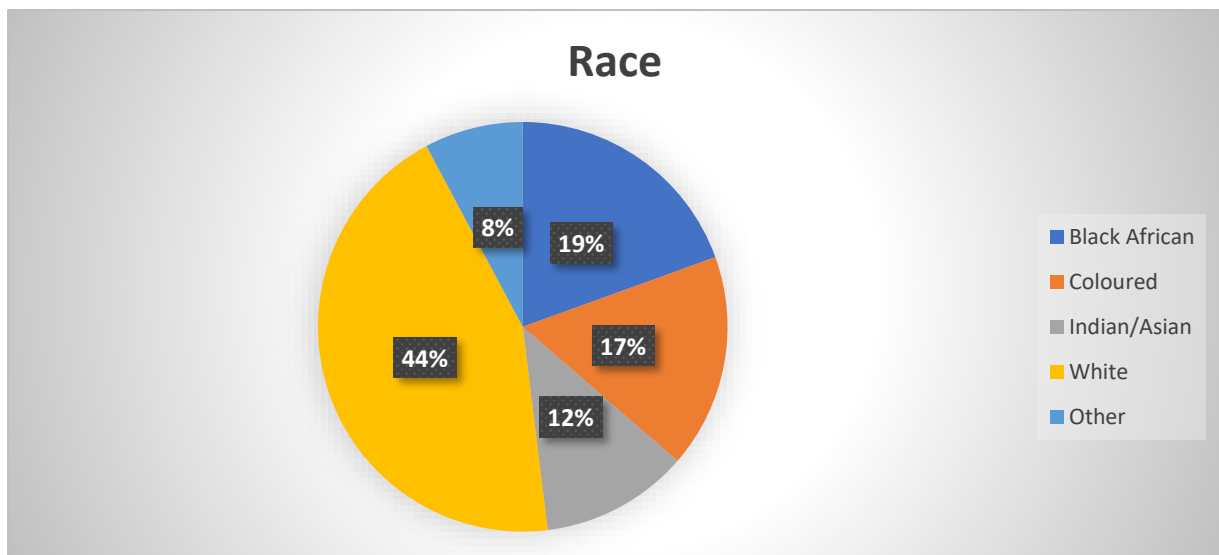


Figure 4. 3: Sample distribution by race (n = 77)

4.1.4 Composition of the sample by marital status

This section discusses marital status of the participants.

Table 4. 4

Marital Status Distribution of Sample (n = 77)

Marital Status				
Category	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Single/divorced/widowed	29	37.7	37.7	37.7
Married	45	58.4	58.4	96.1
Living with a spouse/partner	3	3.9	3.9	100.0
Total	77	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.4 indicates that the marital status distribution comprised of 37.7% single/divorced/widowed, 58.4% married and 3.9% living with spouse or partner. The frequencies indicate that the majority of the participants were married (58.4%). This information is further illustrated in Figure 4.4 below.

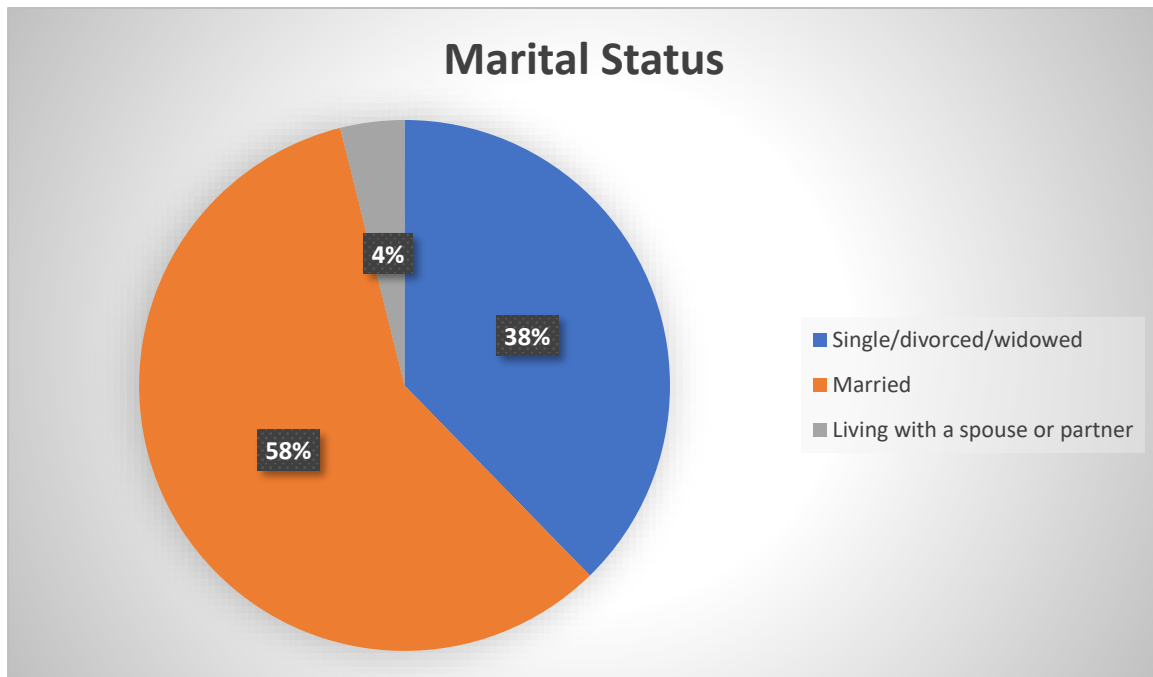


Figure 4. 4: Sample distribution by marital status (n = 77)

4.1.5 Summary: Demographical profile of the sample

In summary the demographical profile obtained indicates that the majority of participants were white (44.2%) females (57.1%) between the ages 35 and 44 years (32.5%). The majority of the participants (58.4%) were married.

4.2 CHOOSING AND MOTIVATING THE MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

The measuring instruments were used to achieve the research aims of this study. The instruments were chosen based on their reliability and validity. The following three measuring instruments were utilised in this study:

- (a) A Demographical Questionnaire to obtain data regarding age, gender, race and marital status.
- (b) The Culture Free Self-Esteem Inventory for Adults (CFSEI 2-AD) (Battle, 1992), to measure a person's perceptions of self-worth and achievement compared to those of others.
- (c) The Career Orientations Inventory (COI) (Schein 2006), to measure individual's career anchors and preference.

4.2.1 The demographical questionnaire

A demographical questionnaire provides insight into who participated in the study (Johnson, 2014). For this study, the demographical questionnaire consisted of items that requested the participants to provide information regarding their age, gender, race and marital status.

4.2.2 The Culture-free Self-esteem Inventories for Adults (CFSEI 2-AD)

Self-esteem was measured using the Culture-Free Self-Esteem Inventories for Adults (CFSEI 2-AD) developed by Battle (1992). The CFSEI 2-AD is discussed with reference to the development and the rationale of the instrument, description of scales, administration, interpretation, validity and reliability of the instrument. Lastly, the researcher will motivate for choosing the CFSEI 2-AD as a measuring instrument in this study.

4.2.2.1 Development of the CFSEI 2-AD

The CFSEI 2-AD is a self-report inventory developed over a course of several years' work with students and adult clients. Battle's (1992) model of self-esteem was relevant to this research as its underlying principles allow industrial and organisational psychologist as well as researchers to study the construct self-esteem in a socially embedded context such as the workplace. Battle (1982; 1992) supports the multidimensional theoretical approach to defining the construct self-esteem (Coetzee, 2005).

4.2.2.2 Rationale for the CFSEI 2-AD

The CFSEI 2-AD is designed to assess the construct self-esteem in adults in a valid and reliable manner. It has been successfully used by psychologists, psychiatrists, counsellors, and teachers as a screening device to identify individuals who may need psychological assistance. The CFSEI 2-AD is perceived as a valuable clinical tool although it has also been used extensively for research purposes. This instrument may serve as a tool in designing personal development interventions and measuring growth progress (Battle, 1992).

4.2.2.3 Description of the scales of the CFSEI 2-AD

Battle (1992) notes that the construct self-esteem comprises several facets or dimensions. The CFSEI 2-AD contains 40 items to measure different components of self-esteem and consists of four subtests as outlined in the table below.

Table 4. 5

Dimensions of CFSEI 2-AD (Battle, 1992)

Dimension	Description	Number of items	Example items
General self-esteem	This measurement specifies how an individual perceive his or her overall self-worth or significance.	16	"I am happy most of the time".
Social/peer self-esteem	This measurement shows that an individual sees meaningful relationships with peers, friends and colleagues.	8	"I have only a few friends".
Personal self-esteem	This measurement demonstrates an individual's perceptions and emotions of his or her self-worth.	8	'I am usually tense or anxious".
Lie/defensiveness items	This measurement specifies an individual's level of openness/defensiveness to items on the CFSEI 2-AD inventory.	8	"I like everyone I know".

4.2.2.4 Administration of the CFSEI 2-AD

The CFSEI 2-AD can be administered to individuals and groups and takes approximately 15 to 20 minutes to complete. The instructions are clearly indicated on the questionnaire and the response sheet.

4.2.2.5 Interpretation of the CFSEI 2-AD

A six-point Likert-type scale was used for rating the responses of the questionnaire. Each subset (general, personal, social and total) is measured separately and reflects the perceptions (self-evaluations) and feelings of the participants in these dimensions. Thus, the researcher can determine which dimensions are true for the respondent and which are not. The higher score reflects that the level of self-esteem is positive. The participants complete the 40 items by checking each item according to a scale from 1 to 6, where *1 = strongly disagree* and *6 = strongly agree*.

4.2.2.6 Validity and reliability of the CFSEI 2-AD

In terms of reliability, Battle (1992) reports internal consistency reliability coefficients ranged between .79 and .92 for all the subscales (Battle, 1992). Studies by Coetzee (2005), Potgieter (2012), Ismail (2015) and Van Dyk (2016) also confirmed the reliability of the instrument in the South African context. Coetzee (2005) found acceptable internal consistency for the factor analysis conducted on the CFSEI 2-AD, where internal consistency reliability coefficients ranged between .78 and .90 for all the subscales. Potgieter (2012) also used the instrument to assess the relationship between self-esteem and employability attributes and found that there are significant relationships between the participants' self-esteem and employability. Potgieter (2012) found an internal consistency reliability coefficient ranged between .70 and .80 for all the subscales. Ismail (2015) investigated how graduate employability capacities, when combined with self-esteem, has a significant relationship with a set of career adaptability capacities. Ismail (2015) found an internal consistency reliability coefficient ranged between .75 to .92 for all the subscales. The scholar found that graduate employability capacities contributed the most in terms of clarifying the individuals' career adaptability as compared to their self-esteem. In all studies all subscales had a Cronbach alpha of .81 and above.

4.2.2.7 Motivation for using the CFSEI 2-AD

The CFSEI 2-AD was chosen for its appropriateness for the current study. It is an easily and quickly administrable instrument and has been proven both valid, reliable and free from any cultural biases.

4.2.3 Career Orientations Inventory (COI)

Career anchors were measured using the Career Orientations Inventory (COI) (Schein, 1990). The COI is discussed with reference to the development and the rationale of the instrument, description of scales, administration, interpretation, validity and reliability. Finally, the researcher will motivate the reasons for choosing the COI as a measuring instrument in this research study.

4.2.3.1 Development of the COI

The COI, developed by Schein (2006), was used to measure the participants' career anchors. The COI is a self-perceived and self-diagnosing instrument that measures the level of individual self-perceived career anchor preferences (Schein, 1990). The purpose of the COI is to measure the eight career anchors of individuals. COI catalogues eight different self-concepts which act as a stabilising force for managers and employees (McGuire, 2014).

4.2.3.2 Rationale for the COI

The purpose of the instrument is to measure the eight career anchors of individuals about their own areas of talents, needs and values that anchor them in their careers. The COI measures the level of individual self-perceived career anchor preferences (Schein, 1990).

4.2.3.3 Description of the scales of the COI

The COI is a self-report instrument comprising of 40 items in total, these items are designed to measure eight career preferences or orientations, all of which are regarded to be of equal value and to which respondents answer in terms of how true the statement is (Schein, 1990). Schein (1990) differentiates between eight career anchors as described in the table below (Chang et al., 2012; Feldman & Bolino, 1996).

Table 4.6

Description of the COI scales (Schein, 2006)

Career anchors	Description	Number of items	Example items
Career anchors that focus on the expression of work-related talents	Technical or functional competence: The individual is primarily motivated by the need to exercise technical and functional expertise.	5	"I dream of being so good at what I do that my expert advice will be sought continually".
	General managerial competence: The individual is primarily motivated by the need to pursue higher managerial levels and greater responsibility to determine policymaking.	5	"I am most fulfilled in my work when I have been able to integrate and manage the efforts of others".
	Entrepreneurial creativity: The individual is primarily motivated by the need to build or create something that is entirely one's own project.	5	"I dream of having a career that will allow me the freedom to do a job my own way and on my own schedule".
Career anchors that focus on structuring one's work roles consistent with basic personal desires and personal life	Autonomy and independence: The individual is primarily motivated to seek work situations that are maximally free of organisational constraints.	5	"I am always on the lookout for ideas that would permit me to start my own enterprise".
	Security and stability: The individual is primarily motivated by job security and long-term attachment to one organisation.	5	"Security and stability are more important to me than freedom and autonomy".
	Lifestyle: The individual is primarily motivated to balance career with lifestyle.	5	"I would rather leave my organisation than to be put in a job that would compromise my ability to pursue personal and family concerns".
Career anchors that focus on individuals' identification with their occupations and the cultures of their organisation	Service or dedication to a cause: The individual is primarily motivated to help others and improve the world in some fashion.	5	"I will feel successful in my career only if I have a feeling of having made a real contribution to the welfare of society".
	Pure challenge: The individual is primarily motivated to overcome obstacles, conquer difficult tasks or problems and to overwhelm competitors.	5	"I dream of a career in which I can solve problems or win out in situations that are extremely challenging".

4.2.3.4 Administration of the COI

The COI (Schein, 1990) can be administered to individuals and groups and usually takes approximately 10 to 20 minutes to complete. The instructions are indicated on the questionnaire and the response sheet. The COI is administered according to the rating and scoring instructions provided by Schein (1990).

4.2.3.5 Interpretation of the COI

A five-point Likert-type scale is used to measure responses of the questionnaire, where *1 represents never true for me* and *5 is always true for me*.

4.2.3.6 Validity and reliability of the COI

The COI has evidenced satisfactory psychometric validity and reliability in other South African multicultural samples (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2009). Internal consistency reliability coefficients were obtained: technical/functional competence (.51), general managerial competence (.65), autonomy/independence (.68), security/stability (.70), entrepreneurial creativity (.76), service/dedication to a cause (.73), pure challenge (.66) and lifestyle (.60) (Schein, 1990; Coetzee, Mogale & Potgieter, 2015). Ndzube (2013) and Mogale (2015) also conducted reliability tests using factor analysis tests COI and confirmed. Ndzube (2013) found that there is a statistically significant relationship between career anchors and employability. Mogale (2015) found that emotional affect moderates the career resilience - career anchors relation, while participants from various years of service, age, and race groups differ significantly in relation to their emotional affect. The reliability of the instrument was also confirmed in the South African context (Ndzube, 2013; Mogale, 2015).

4.2.3.7 Motivation for using the COI

The COI was chosen for its relevance to the current study. It has been proven to be valid and reliable in the South African context. COI is well known and utilised instrument in career counselling and is valuable in guiding employees towards jobs that are particularly suited to them (McGuire, 2014).

In conclusion, the two measuring instruments namely CFSEI2-AD and COI were chosen to measure self-esteem and career anchors. A detailed information on the limitation of the

instrument will be carefully considered when interpreting research results obtained from the research findings.

4.3 ADMINISTRATION OF THE MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

The ethical clearance and permission to conduct the study was obtained from the University's research committee and the participating organisation. After permission was obtained, an email was sent to a gatekeeper (a psychometrist from the participating organisation explaining the purpose of the study and the survey process. A gatekeeper, as defined by McFadyen and Rankin (2016), is an adult who controls or limits researcher's access to participants. Singh and Wassenaar (2016) also state that a gatekeeper is person or an authority that controls access to an organisation, company or institution such as a school principal, managing director or administrator. According to McFadyen and Rankin (2016), gatekeepers ensure that a researcher attains access to prospective participants and sites for research.

The researcher copied the questionnaire into an online survey application called Lime Survey. The link to the survey and consent form was copied into an email that was sent to the gatekeeper. The gatekeeper administered the online survey on behalf of the researcher. A self-administered, online questionnaire was thus used to collect data. The major advantages of using the electronic survey method in this study are the cost efficiency, speed, ease of implementation and no facilitation being required for the target audience (Callegaro, Manfreda & Vehovar, 2015; Keyton, 2015). One of the advantages of online surveys is that they "allow the researcher to observe when submittals of time-sensitive responses are or are not received to prompt participants and maintain minimal time between event or activity and recording appropriate data" (Wieters, 2016: 4). The other advantage of electronic surveys is the ability to reach a wider audience, irrespective of their geographical location (Henry, 2014; Johnson and Christensen, 2017; Keyton, 2015). It is beneficial to use the online survey method because it is flexible, confidential and convenient for both researcher and participants to answer at their own time (Keyton, 2015; Lin & Van Ryzin, 2013). Furthermore, the author also purports that online surveys allow the researcher to easily notice problems participants are encountering during the study period as they enter the data rather than uncovering useless data after the data collection has been concluded (Wieters, 2016). Fielding, Raymond and Blank (2017) state that online surveys permit the researcher to put more effort into the maximisation of responses from the participants through the survey design investment, pre-testing or through a more detailed non-response follow-up. However, Lin and Van Ryzin (2013) found that the disadvantage of online surveys is low response rate when compared to paper-based surveys. Johnson and Christensen

(2017) concur this statement that online surveys are also accused of not being able to probe and one must constantly send out reminders to the respondents.

Approximately 4000 staff members were invited to complete the questionnaire. The staff members were provided with instructions on how to complete the questionnaire, the estimated time the survey would take to complete and a link directing them to the survey. The participants were requested to complete all the questions.

An initial email was sent to the participants requesting them to participate in research. Follow up emails were sent out approximately 1 week after the initial mailing, as previous research has identified that follow up action is vital for maximising response rates (Henry, 2014; Tustin et al, 2005). At least seven email reminders were sent to the gatekeeper to remind participants the importance of completing the survey. From time to time the researcher would engage with the gatekeeper to give an update on the number of staff members who completed the survey. However, despite the researcher and gatekeeper's best efforts, only 77 responses were obtained.

4.4 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethics are moral principles governing the conduct of an individual, a group, or an organisation (Quinlan, 2011). Research was conducted with the highest integrity, considering Unisa's Policy on Research Ethics. Accordingly, the participants in the current study were informed of the purpose of the study. Below are the measures that were taken into consideration when conducting research:

- Voluntary participation was encouraged
- Participants were assured that their identity and responses remained anonymous.
- The information from the study was not be used anywhere except for academic purposes.
- All references used were reliable
- Personal information was not recorded anywhere, and no-one was able to connect individuals to the answers provided
- Estimated time to complete questionnaires was made known to the participants
- All data is protected

Ethical considerations were a vital part of every step of the research process, to ensure that these considerations guided the researcher and the study. There were no known risks for

participating in this study. Moreover, the researcher emphasised that the results of the research would be made available to the participants and the participating organisation.

4.5 SCORING OF THE MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

All responses received were captured in a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences, version 24 (IBM Corp., 2015) was used to analyse the data.

4.6 FORMULATION OF THE RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

The research hypotheses were formulated to achieve the objectives of the study as displayed in Table 4.7 below.

Table 4. 7
Research Hypotheses

Research aim 1		
Aim	Research hypothesis	Statistical procedure
To explore the nature, direction and magnitude of the statistical relationship between self-esteem and career anchors as manifested in a sample of respondents in the South African financial services industry.	<p>H₀₁: There is no statistically significant relationship between self-esteem and career anchors.</p> <p>H_{a1}: There is a statistically significant relationship between self-esteem and career anchors.</p>	Correlation analysis
Research aim 2		
Aim	Research hypothesis	Statistical procedure
To determine whether self-esteem significantly predict career anchors.	<p>H₀₂: Self-esteem does not significantly predict career anchors.</p> <p>H_{a2}: Self-esteem significantly predict career anchors.</p>	Multiple regression analysis

4.7 STATISTICAL PROCESSING OF THE DATA

Quantitative data is also known as a measurement data that measure some numerical quantity (Riggio, 2013). Quantitative data analysis therefore deals with the processing of numerical data and uses statistical methods to analyse data. The results obtained from the quantitative data

analysis are shown through tables and figures to show the frequency of occurrence, as well as identifying statistical relationships between the variables (Sithole, 2017). The statistical analysis applicable for this research includes descriptive statistics (Cronbach's alpha coefficients, means, and standard deviations), correlation analysis (Pearson product moment correlations) and multiple regression analysis.

For this study, the statistical analysis was conducted in three stages:

Stage 1: Descriptive statistical analysis

The descriptive statistical analysis encompassed descriptive data which was used to describe the sample characteristics of the numerical data. Kaushik and Mathur (2016) argue that descriptive statistical analysis deals with the presentation of numerical facts, or data, in either tables or graph form, and with the methodology of analysing the data. The categorical or frequency data (means and standard deviations) as measured by the CFSEI 2-AD and COI were determined for the total sample in order to apply the relevant statistical procedures. The analysis also included computing the means, standard deviations, skewness, kurtosis and frequencies; and test for outliers. Cronbach's Alpha coefficients were used for this study to determine the reliability of these instruments.

Stage 2: Correlational analysis

Correlation in the broadest sense is a measure of an association between variables (Schober, Boer & Schwarte, 2018). Correlational analysis encompasses the measuring of correlational coefficient. Correlation coefficient is a statistical measure that indicates the extent to which two or more variables fluctuate together (Altiner & Ayhan, 2018). A positive correlation indicates the extent to which those variables increase or decrease in parallel. A negative correlation indicates the extent to which one variable increases as the other decreases (Altiner & Ayhan, 2018). Correlation analysis is used in this study to explore the nature, direction and magnitude of the statistical relationship between self-esteem and career anchors as manifested in a sample of respondents in the South African financial services industry.

Pearson product moment correlation coefficients were used to specify the relationship between the variables of CFSEI 2-AD and COI. In those instances where the distribution of scores is skewed, Spearman correlation coefficients were computed. To accept or reject the correlation or statistical significance, a confidence level of 95% ($p \leq .05$) was set. In other words, when a

test of significance reveals a p -value lower than .05, the null hypothesis was rejected, and the results were deemed to be statistically significant.

Mostert and Joubert (2015) criticises the sole use of statistical significance testing and recommends that effect sizes be established to determine the importance of a statistically significant relationship. The magnitude of a relation between two variables is called the effect size (Field, 2013; Gifford, Hine & Veitch, 1997). A relationship between an independent and a dependent variable in an observational study can be characterised in terms of the strength of the relationship or its effect size (Cohen, Cohen, West & Aiken, 2003).

Significance level refers only to the odds that a difference or influence exists in the whole population from which the sample is drawn from, whereas the effect size is the magnitude of that influence (Button et al., 2013; Gifford et al., 1997). A practical effect size were used to determine whether the relationship between two variables is statistically significant and was interpreted according to the following guidelines: $r \leq .30$ (small practical effect size), $r \geq .30 \leq .49$ (medium practical effect size), $r \geq .50$ (large practical effect size) (Cohen, 1992; Gifford et al., 1997; Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010).

Stage 3: Multiple regression analysis

Multiple regression analysis is a well-known multivariate method normally used to study the separate and collective contributions of several independent variables to the variance of a dependent variable (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 2002). The analysis procedure is utilised to enhance models for describing scores of the dependent variable from scores of several other independent variables (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 2002).

The outcome of multiple regression analyses highlights two things. Firstly, the R^2 values explain how well a set of variables explain a dependent variable and secondly the regression results measure the direction and size (magnitude) of the effect of each variable on a dependent variable (Cohen et al., 2003). Practical effect sizes were used to determine whether self-esteem significantly predict career anchors. The following cut-off criterion for multiple regression analysis R^2 value $\geq .01 \leq .09$ (small practical effect size); R^2 value $\geq .09 \leq .25$ (moderate practical effect size) and R^2 value $\geq .25$ (large practical effect size) (Button, 2016) were used.

Level of significance

Cohen's d value was used to indicate the practical effect size and was interpreted as $d = .20$ (small effect); $d = .50$ (medium effect); and $d = .80$ (large effect) (Cohen, 1992).

When testing the hypotheses, there is, however, always the probability of making two different errors. Firstly, Type 1 errors which occur when the null hypothesis is rejected although it is in fact true. Secondly, Type 2 errors, which occur when the null hypothesis is accepted although it is in fact false. These types of errors can be avoided by increasing the sample size or adjusting the significance level to compensate for small samples (Pallant, 2007).

4.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The chapter provided insight on the empirical study that was conducted. The chapter included information on the population and description of the sample, measuring instrument, research procedure and statistical analyses. The chapter concluded with a discussion on formulation of the statistical processing of the data.

CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH RESULTS

This chapter summarises the results of the study based on the statistical analyses that were conducted. These analyses were conducted to test the formulated research hypotheses as outlined in Table 4.7 (Chapter 4). The statistical results of the empirical study are reported by means of descriptive statistics, correlation analysis and multiple regression analysis. The empirical results are integrated and interpreted in this chapter, and the chapter concludes with a summary.

5.1 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Descriptive statistics is a statistical method that summarise the features of a collection of data (Ho & Yu, 2015). Therefore, descriptive statistics is a method of analysing data and present the numerical facts in the form of a table or graph (Kaushik & Mathur, 2016). In this section the numerical data is summarised into tables, charts and graphs to give a graphic image of the distributions (Duquia, Bastos, Bonamigo, González-Chica & Martínez-Mesa, 2014). This section will also assess the internal consistency reliability of the three measurement instruments, followed by a discussion of the means (*M*), standard deviations (*SD*), skewness and kurtosis that were computed for each scale.

5.1.1 Reporting of internal consistency reliability

Internal consistency reliability refers to a method to determine the consistency of the measuring instruments (Tredoux & Durrheim, 2013). This method provides an estimate of the consistency of the responses to the measuring items in each instrument (Chen & Krauss, 2011). Cronbach's alpha coefficient is the most widely used test for reliability and normally the scores usually vary between 0 and 1 (Cramer & Howitt, 2011). A Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .70 is considered a desirable reliability coefficient, although it may decrease to .60 in exploratory research (Hair et al., 2010). The reliability analyses focused on determining the Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the two measurement instruments, namely, the Culture Free Self-Esteem Inventory (CFSEI-2AD) (Battle, 1992) and the Career Anchors Inventory (COI) (Schein, 2006). The Cronbach's alpha coefficients are reported for each instrument in the sections below.

5.1.1.1 Reporting on scale reliability: Culture Free Self-esteem Inventory (CFSEI-2AD)

Table 5.1 provides the Cronbach's alpha coefficient for each of the four subscales of the CFSEI-2AD (Battle, 1992). The Cronbach's alpha coefficient scores varied from .50 (low) to .88 (high) for the total sample (n = 77). The social self-esteem subscales were removed to increase the scale's internal consistency reliability. The overall CFSEI-2AD scale obtained a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .86 (high) which are considered satisfactory for the current study.

Table 5. 1

Internal Consistency Reliability: CFSEI-2AD

Subscale	Cronbach's alpha	Number of items
General self-esteem	.88	16
Social self-esteem	.50	8
Personal self-esteem	.86	8
Lie items	.54	8
Overall scale	.86	40

5.1.1.2 Reporting on scale reliability: Career Anchors Inventory (COI)

Table 5.2 provides the Cronbach's alpha coefficient for each of the eight subscales of the COI (Schein, 1990). The Cronbach's alpha coefficient scores varied from .52 (low) to .82 (high) for the total sample (n = 77). The total COI scale obtained a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .88 (high), which are considered adequate for the current study.

Table 5. 2

Internal Consistency Reliability: COI

Subscale	Cronbach's alpha	Number of items
Technical or functional competence	.52	5
General managerial competence	.82	5
Entrepreneurial creativity	.80	5
Autonomy and independence	.76	5
Security and stability	.76	5
Lifestyle	.74	5
Service or dedication to a cause	.77	5
Pure challenge	.82	5
Overall scale	.88	40

5.1.2 Reporting of means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis

After the internal consistency reliability of the two scales had been identified, a descriptive analysis was conducted to investigate the distribution of the scores. As such, the means (M), standard deviations (SD), skewness and kurtosis were computed for each scale. After a brief explanation, these are reported below.

5.1.2.1 Culture Free Self-esteem Inventory (CFSEI-2AD)

Table 5.3 summarises the means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis of each of the four subscales of the CFSEI-2AD, as well as of the overall scale. The means of the four subscales ranged between 3.34 and 4.54. As shown in Table 5.3, the highest mean score was $M = 4.54$ ($SD = .60$) for the social self-esteem subscale, while the lowest mean score obtained was $M = 3.34$ ($SD = .64$) for the lie items subscale. The overall mean for CFSEI-2AD indicated a high score of $M = 4.06$ ($SD = .51$). The skewness values show that the scores for all the

subscales and the overall scale were positively skewed (bounded to the left). Skewness for the four subscales ranged between -.01 to -.68, thereby falling within the -1 and 1 normality range recommended for these coefficients (Howell, 2016). The kurtosis values ranging between -.74 and .54, thereby falling within the -3 and 3 normality range (Brown, 2015).

Table 5. 3

Means, Standard Deviations, Skewness and Kurtosis: CFSEI-2AD

Subscale	Mean	Standard deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
General self-esteem	4.37	.81	-.68	.54
Social self-esteem	4.54	.60	-.39	-.05
Personal self-esteem	3.96	1.01	-.14	-.25
Lie items	3.34	.64	-.01	-.74
Overall scale	4.06	.51	-.49	.27

5.1.2.2 Career Anchors Inventory (COI)

Table 5.4 summarises the means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis of each of the eight subscales of the COI scale, as well as of the overall scale. The means for the eight subscales ranged between 3.31 and 4.71. As shown in Table 5.4, the highest mean score was $M = 4.71$ ($SD = .75$) for the lifestyle subscale, while the lowest mean score obtained was $M = 3.31$ ($SD = 1.10$) for general managerial competence subscale. The overall mean for COI indicated a high score of $M = 4.22$ ($SD = .54$). The skewness values show that the scores for all the subscales and the overall scale were positively skewed (bounded to the left). Skewness for the four subscales ranged between -.70 to .23, thereby falling within the -1 and 1 normality range recommended for these coefficients (Howell, 2016). The kurtosis values ranging between -.63 and .82, thereby falling within the -3 and 3 normality range (Brown, 2015).

Table 5. 4

Means, Standard Deviations, Skewness and Kurtosis: COI

Subscale	Mean	Standard deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Technical or functional competence	4.31	.74	.07	-.60
General managerial competence	3.31	1.10	.23	-.43
Entrepreneurial creativity	3.88	1.06	.20	-.63
Autonomy and independence	4.31	.90	-.21	-.31
Security and stability	4.09	.94	-.06	-.10
Lifestyle	4.71	.75	-.61	.82
Service or dedication to a cause	4.54	.90	-.49	.17
Pure challenge	4.63	.90	-.70	.20
Overall scale	4.22	.54	.26	.39

In summary, regarding the CFSEI-2AD scale, social self-esteem reported the highest mean ($M = 4.54$) and lie items reported the lowest mean ($M = 3.34$). In terms of the COI scale, lifestyle reported the highest mean ($M = 4.71$) and general managerial competence sacrifice the lowest mean ($M = 3.31$).

5.2 CORRELATIONS

Correlation statistics test the direction of the strength of the relationship between two or more variables (Field, 2013; Tredoux & Durrheim, 2013). In this research, correlation statistics was performed to test research hypothesis 1: H_{a1} : There is a statistically significant relationship between self-esteem and career anchors.

The Pearson product moment correlation coefficients is used to specify the relationship between the variables of CFSEI-2AD and COI. For the purpose of this study, a cut-off point of $r \leq .30$ (small effect) at probability level ($p \leq .05$) was used as a means to establish the practical significance of the correlation coefficients.

5.2.1 Reporting of the bivariate correlations between CFSEI-2AD and COI

This section reports on the bivariate correlations between the CFSEI-2AD and COI variables. As displayed in Table 5.5 below a significant relationship were observed between these variables.

Table 5. 5

Bivariate Correlations Between CFSEI-2AD and COI

		General Self esteem	Personal self- esteem	Lie items	SELF ESTEEM
Technical or functional competence	Pearson Correlation	-0.191	-0.110	0.153	-0.123
General managerial competence	Pearson Correlation	0.003	-0.158	-0.110	-0.065
Autonomy and independence	Pearson Correlation	-0.205	-0.221*	0.210	-0.155
Security and stability	Pearson Correlation	-0.169	-.385***	0.183	-.258*
Service or dedication to a cause	Pearson Correlation	-0.133	-0.037	-0.093	-0.113
Pure challenge	Pearson Correlation	0.154	0.178	-0.159	0.168
Lifestyle	Pearson Correlation	-.247*	-0.065	0.015	-0.199

Notes: N = 77 *** $p \leq .001$; ** $p \leq .01$; * $p \leq .05$. $r \leq .30$ (small practical effect size), $r \geq .30 \leq .49$ (medium practical effect size), $r \geq .50$ (large practical effect size)

Some significant relationships were found between the CFSEI-2AD and COI items. General self-esteem showed a significant negative relationship with lifestyle ($r = -.25$; small practical effect size, $p \leq .05$). Personal self-esteem showed significant negative relationships with autonomy and independence ($r = -.22$; small practical effect size, $p \leq .05$) and security and stability ($r = -.39$; medium practical effect size, $p \leq .01$). The overall self-esteem variable was only significantly and negatively related to security and stability ($-.258$).

The results of the bivariate correlation analyses provided supportive evidence for research hypothesis H_{a1} : There is a statistically significant relationship between self-esteem and career anchors.

5.3 MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS

A multiple regression analysis was conducted using CFSEI-2AD as independent variable and COI as dependent variable. The aim of multiple regression analysis was to determine the relationship between the independent or predictor variable and a dependent or criterion variable (Baker et. al, 2015). In this research, multiple regression analysis was performed to test research hypothesis 2. H_{a2} : Self-esteem significantly predict career anchor.

5.3.1 Reporting multiple regression analysis (CFSEI-2AD versus COI)

Table 5.6: Multiple Regression (CFSEI-2AD versus COI) (N = 77)

Variable	Unstandar- dised coefficient		Standa r-dised coeffi- cient	T	P	F	Adju- sted R ²	R	Collinearity stats	
	B	SE B	β						Tole- rance	VIF
Personal self-esteem vs GM	-.52	.20	-.49	-2.65	.01**	2.83	.09	.37	.36	2.80
Social self- esteem vs AU	.57	.23	.38	2.50	.01**	2.88	.09	.37	.52	1.94
General self-esteem vs SE	.55	.23	.48	2.37	.02*	4.80	.17	.46	.27	3.65
Personal self-esteem vs SE	-.61	.16	-.66	-3.78	.000** *	4.80	.17	.46	.36	2.79

*** $p \leq .001$ ** $p \leq .01$ * $p \leq .05$

+ $R^2 \leq .12$ (small practical effect size) ++ $R^2 \geq .13 \leq .25$ (medium practical effect size)

+++ $R^2 \geq .26$ (large practical effect size)

Table 5.6 indicates that the regression models explained a small ($R^2 \leq .12$) to medium ($R^2 \geq .13 \leq .25$) practical percentage of variance (Cohen, 1992). The regression personal self-esteem upon the general managerial variable produced a statistically significant model ($F = 2.83$; $p = .01$; $R = .37$; $\Delta R^2 = .09$). The adjusted R^2 value of .09 indicates that personal self-esteem predicted approximately 9% (small practical effect) of the variance within the dependent variable (general managerial competence). The regression general self-esteem upon the security and

stability variable produced a statistically significant model ($F = 4.80$; $p = .02$; $R = .46$; $\Delta R^2 = .17$). The adjusted R^2 value of .17 indicates that general self-esteem predicted approximately 17% (medium practical effect) of the variance within the dependent variable security and stability. The regression personal self-esteem upon the security and stability variable produced a statistically significant model ($F = 4.80$; $p = .000$; $R = .46$; $\Delta R^2 = .17$). The adjusted R^2 value of .17 indicates that personal self-esteem predicted approximately 17% (medium practical effect) of the variance within the dependent variable security and stability.

In terms of the collinearity statistics, the variance inflation factor (VIF) values were lower than the cut-off of > 1.0 for multicollinearity concerns. These values imply that multicollinearity could be ruled out in interpreting the results.

5.4 CONCLUSIONS REGARDING THE RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

Table 5.7 below demonstrates a summary of the conclusions regarding the research hypotheses.

Table 5. 6

Summary of the findings of research hypotheses

Research Aim 1	Research hypothesis	Statistical procedure	Supportive evidence
To explore the nature, direction and magnitude of the statistical relationship between self-esteem and career anchors as manifested in a sample of respondents in the South African financial services industry.	H₀₁: There is no statistically significant relationship between self-esteem and career anchors.	Correlation analysis	Not supported
	H_{a1}: There is a statistically significant relationship between self-esteem and career anchors.		Partial evidence
Research Aim 2	Research hypothesis	Statistical procedure	
To determine whether self-esteem significantly predict career anchors.	H₀₂: Self-esteem does not significantly predict career anchor.	Multiple regression analysis	Not supported
	H_{a2}: Self-esteem significantly predict career anchor.		Supported

5.5 INTERGRATION AND DISCUSSION

In this section, the demographical profile of the sample is discussed inclusive of the results of the tested research hypotheses.

5.5.1 Demographical profile of sample and frequencies

The demographical profile obtained from the sample indicates that the participants were predominantly white (44.2%) females (57.1%) between the ages 35 and 44 (32.5%) years old within the early adulthood/establishment phase (57.2%). These individuals were married (58.4%) and working on a full-time basis in the South African financial services industry.

5.5.2 Sample profile: self-esteem and career anchors

In this section, the interpretation of the means is discussed. Table 5.8 shows the highest and lowest mean scores of the two measuring instruments.

Table 5. 7

Summary of Means of Measuring Instruments

Subscale	CFSEI 2AD	COI
Highest mean	Social self-esteem (4.54)	Lifestyle (4.71)
Lowest mean	Lie items (3.34)	General managerial competence (3.31)

In terms of the Culture Free Self-Esteem Inventory (CFSEI 2-AD) (Battle, 1992), the highest score indicate that participants have relatively high social self-esteem. The participants scored high on social self-esteem, suggesting that these individuals show high levels relating to their perception of and feelings about the quality of their relationships with associates and partners (Battle, 1992). These findings are also supported by Ismail (2015), who found social self-esteem to hold the highest mean. According to Battle (1992) and Stets and Burke (2014), social self-esteem includes acceptance/belongingness which largely offer a sense that one is valuable and

is socially integrated. Social self-esteem can raise feelings of being a worthwhile member in society.

The participants scored low on lie items, indicating that the lie items are not their strong attribute. The low scores on the lie items suggest that the participants were less defensive and moderately open to disclose self-esteem characteristics that were socially unacceptable (Battle, 1992).

In relation to Career Anchors Inventory (COI) (Schein, 1990), the participants scored high on lifestyle career anchor, suggesting that the participants are largely persuaded to balance work with way of life. Individuals with this career anchor pursue to stabilise their individual and family requirements as well as career goals. They want to make every facet of life work cooperatively. Achievement is described in broader terms than career terms and in relation to life. Coetzee and Schreuder (2016) describe individuals with a lifestyle anchor as those individuals who see their careers as part of their total style of living which includes their personal and family factors. Generally, family takes first preference dictating the geographic area where the individual lives, type of work and how life works (Schein, 2013). The high mean score for the lifestyle (need-based) career anchor indicate that the participants prefer balancing a person's personal and family wellbeing with work obligations.

The participants scored low on general managerial competence, indicating that promotion or aspiring to higher roles is not important to individuals with this career anchor (Schein, 2013). Autonomy and independence (need-based) career anchor take account of the individual's need for freedom in the job content and organisational circumstances (Feldman & Bolino, 1996; 2000). The low mean score suggests that the participants in this study has less capacity to work independently and make judgements. They usually compromise position status and salary versus lifestyle freedom (Schein, 2013).

5.5.3 Research aim 1: To explore the nature, direction and magnitude of the statistical relationship between self-esteem and career anchors as manifested in a sample of respondents in the South African financial service industry.

The results provide partial evidence for research hypothesis H_{a1} : There is a statistically significant relationship between self-esteem and career anchors.

5.5.3.1 Interpretation of correlations between the CFSEI-2AD and the COI

According to the results (see Table 5.5), participants showed partial significant relationships between self-esteem and career anchors. This means that individuals with high self-esteem are generally able to make career decisions and achieve their goals (Kerka, 1998; Potgieter, 2012). A study carried out by Clarke (2013) also found that high esteemed employees have high chances of achieving their goals. Malhi (2010) also postulates that people with a high self-esteem tend to be more ambitious than those with low self-esteem. Individuals with high self-esteem tend to feel capable and worthwhile, whilst individuals with low self-esteem are likely to feel incapable and worthless (Reece, 2008; 2014). This means that individuals with high self-esteem are more likely to adopt effective coping strategies when encountering stress than individuals with low self-esteem. Positive self-esteem is boosted by accomplishing a difficult task and gaining the respect from others (Landy & Conte, 2013).

5.5.4 Research aim 2: To determine whether self-esteem significantly predict career anchors.

The results provided supportive evidence for H_{a2} : Self-esteem significantly predict career anchors.

5.5.4.1 Interpretation of the predictions between the CFSEI-2AD and the COI

According to the results (see Table 5.6), the study displayed self-esteem to some extent predict career anchors. Thus, this is an indication that self-esteem and the career anchors are closely related (Assan, 2013; Brockner & Guare, 1983; Ferreira et al., 2010). A study conducted by Orth, Robins and Trzesniewski (2010) concluded that self-esteem increases when individuals have a sense of achievement and accomplishment, and experience positive interactions with others in the workplace or decrease when they have failed to attain something, they had strong beliefs on.

5.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter discussed and provided the results of the descriptive, correlational and multiple regression analysis relevant to the study. The results were reported to integrate the findings of the literature review with the findings of the empirical research study that was conducted. The following research aims were presented.

Research aim 1: To explore the nature, direction and magnitude of the statistical relationship between self-esteem and career anchors as manifested in a sample of respondents in the South African financial service industry.

Research aim 2: To determine whether self-esteem significantly predict career anchors.

Chapter 6 will address research aim 3, namely to formulate recommendations for the career development practices within the financial services industry. The chapter also includes conclusions, limitations and recommendations for the research study.

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The aim of this chapter is to address empirical research aim 3, namely to formulate recommendations for the career development practices within the financial services industry and future research. In this chapter, the statistical results of the study were discussed. In addition, the chapter discusses and present the conclusions based on the findings of the research. The chapter will also highlight the limitations of the study and make recommendations for future research in the field of human resource management regarding career development practices.

6.1 CONCLUSIONS

Conclusions based on both the literature review and empirical study are discussed in the following section, in accordance with the research aims outlined chapter 1.

6.1.1 Conclusions relating to the literature review

The objectives of the study were to establish the relationship between individuals' self-esteem and career anchors; and secondly to determine whether self-esteem significantly predict career anchors. The research focused on the relationship between self-esteem and career anchors in the context of career development. The general aims were achieved by focusing on the specific research aims.

The conclusions relating to relationship dynamics between self-esteem and career anchors will be discussed with reference to the research aims.

6.1.1.1 Literature research aim 1:

- **Research aim 1:** To explore the constructs of self-esteem and career anchors as conceptualised in the literature.

The first aim was achieved in chapter 3.

(a) *Conclusions about the construct of self-esteem*

Battle's model (1992) was employed for this study. The principles of Battle's (1992) model provides a comprehensive framework of self-esteem in a work environment. Battle (1992)

suggests that self-esteem is an indication of wellbeing rather than a psychological trait. Self-esteem is not a new concept, it has been part of human beings for many years (Guindon, 2010), and is considered as one of the oldest areas in psychology (Mruk, 2013). The concept of self-esteem as described by Landy and Conte, (2013) is a positive self-worth or self-concept that is an important resource for coping. Self-esteem is a self-appreciation comprising of feelings and emotions concerning the self. James (1890) explain self-esteem as a standard by which one judges oneself, an estimate, an emotion, and as the experience that we are appropriate to life and to the requirements of life. This means that individuals with high self-esteem are more likely to adopt effective coping strategies when encountering stress than individuals with low self-esteem.

In this study, self-esteem is viewed as a combination of an individual's emotions, aspirations and perceptions which is based on self-knowledge; and insight of your own potential (Battle, 1992). Self-esteem can either be classified as personal self-esteem that signifies how individuals feel about oneself, social self-esteem is related to an individual's perceptions of and feelings about the quality of their relationships with peers, and general self-esteem indicates how individuals view and feel about their overall significance or worth. Self-esteem is a social prerequisite that must be accepted, which is derived from social interaction mediated by reflected self-appraisal (Khalid, Ahmed & Sumera, 2013; Sullivan, 1953).

(b) Conclusions about the construct of career anchors

Career anchor is a developing self-concept of what a person sees him or herself as being good at, what person's needs and intentions are and what values govern person's career preferences (Feldman & Bolino, 1996; Schein, 1993; Van Vuuren & Fourie, 2000). The concept of a career anchor becomes increasingly relevant as many people are affected by layoffs and must decide what to do next in their careers (Schein, 1996). Career anchors affects how people interpret and negotiate their career experiences and deal with and get used to career shifts (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2013).

Career anchor displays a sequence of self-perceived talents and capabilities, values, and intentions that influences an individual's career-related choices (Schein, 2013). From these definitions it could be concluded that career anchors are non-monetary facets that help individuals to formulate their career preferences (Van Maanen & Schein, 2013).

6.1.1.2 Literature research aim 2:

- **Research aim 2:** To determine the nature of the theoretical relationship between the constructs of self-esteem and career anchors.

The second aim was achieved in chapter 3.

Individuals have an awareness of how their self-esteem relate to their career anchors which represents a unique combination of perceived career competence, motives, and values. Epstein (1979) and Leitner et al. (2014) pointed out that individuals with low or high self-esteem respond differently to positive or negative feedback. Thus, if success is entangled in self-esteem, then the probability of failure must be active. The social cognitive career theory is a useful career theory for addressing career concerns that incorporate self-esteem issues because low self-esteem tends to accompany low self-efficacy and negative outcome expectations (Guindon, 2010). Battle (1992) and Biolcati (2017) also posit that self-esteem incorporates the perceptions or cognitive self-evaluations, and subjective feelings that the individual possesses about his or her own worth - the self being a composite of an individual's feelings, hopes, fears, thoughts, and views of who he or she is, what he or she is, what he or she has been, and what he or she might become in terms of the self and in terms of his or her relationship to others.

Career anchor supports a person's internal career as drastic inspiring changes are achieved in the external career due to the turbulence of the postmodern society (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2016).

Internal career anchors refer to a person's self-concept and are understood in terms of non-monetary incentives such as autonomy at work and job security (Hsu et al., 2003). Schein (1996; 2013) explains the internal career as including a subjective sense of understanding where one is heading with one's career as opposed to the external career, which consist of the formal phases and roles stipulated by organisational policies and societal perceptions of what one can anticipate in the work arena. Hsu et al. (2003) explain that external career anchors refer to the set of career anchors which are centred more on the extent to which people perceive that their organisation directly satisfies their internal career anchors by means of benefits and incentives. Thus, it can be concluded that theoretically, there is a link between self-esteem and career anchors.

6.1.1.3 Literature research aim 3:

- **Research aim 3:** To explore the implications for career development practices implications.

The third aim was achieved in chapter 3.

These findings prove useful in career development of individuals in the financial services industry. Career development is affected by numerous influences and one of them is self-esteem (Kerka, 1998; Vanin, 2015). The relationship between career development and self-esteem is strong and bidirectional (Niles, Jacob, & Nichols, 2010). Self-esteem and career development research results highlight the link between these two constructs. If career development and positive self-esteem are related, then career development programs become critical at essentially every level of career development (Guindon, 2010). This is in line with Coetzee and Schreuder (2011) who noted that organisations that involve their employees in career development planning, education and training initiatives may enhance their career satisfaction. Schein (1990) notes that career anchors are best comprehended in terms of how career decisions and motives enable a person to gain more life experiences. Career anchors create an essential aspect of choices concerning to career development and personal life (Coetzee & Bergh, 2009).

6.1.2 Conclusions relating to the empirical study

This section focuses on the conclusions in terms of the empirical study, the specific aims were:

- **Research aim 1:** To explore the nature, direction and magnitude of the statistical relationship between self-esteem and career anchors as manifested in a sample of respondents in the South African financial service industry.
- **Research aim 2:** To determine whether self-esteem significantly predict career anchors.
- **Research aim 3:** To formulate recommendations for the career development practices within the financial services industry and future research.

6.1.2.1 The first aim. To explore the nature, direction and magnitude of the statistical relationship between self-esteem and career anchors as manifested in a sample of respondents in the South African financial service industry.

The first aim, namely, to explore the nature, direction and magnitude of the statistical relationship between self-esteem and career anchors as manifested in a sample of respondents in the South African financial service industry, was achieved in chapter 5. The results provide partial evidence for research hypothesis H_{a1} : There is a statistically significant relationship between self-esteem and career anchors which supports the findings of the theoretical study.

Since there is limited empirical studies that have been conducted on the relationship between self-esteem and career anchors (especially in the multicultural South African context), one should be cautious not to over-interpret the current findings with reference to the practical implications without further research.

(a) Conclusions relating to the empirical relationship between self-esteem and career anchors

On the basis of the empirical results, the following conclusions can be drawn:

General self-esteem showed a significant negative relationship with lifestyle. This means that the higher the individual's general self-esteem, the lower their lifestyle career anchor. It thus indicates that individuals with a high general self-esteem do not see their career as part of their total style of living (which include their personal and family factors). These individuals with high general self-esteem have a positive attitude about their self-worth, therefore they know that their work is a part of their life not their entire life. In the same light, Coetzee (2010) mentions that individuals with high esteem are positive and optimistic therefore have confidence in their future career prospects. The optimism and positive ensures those individuals that have high self-esteem can take their career as something that is not fixed in their life but that can change. As such these individuals seek to improve their career by seeking other opportunities. Career development is significant for individuals with high general self-esteem.

Personal self-esteem showed significant negative relationships with autonomy and independence. This implies that the higher an individual's personal self-esteem, the lower their autonomy and independence. This finding indicates that people with a higher personal self-esteem become less autonomous and independent pertaining their career development. According to Coetzee and Schreuder (2010) managing one's career has become the

responsibility of the individual rather than of the organisation. In essence, the personal self-esteem of an individual affects the way an individual behaves including career development activities. The higher the personal self-esteem, the less effort a person put with regards to career development as the individual believe that they have accomplished and feel satisfied. The study also found that personal self-esteem has a relationship with career security and stability, with higher personal self-esteem resulting in lower security and stability anchors. This indicates that people with high personal self-esteem are less likely to stay in a specific position, job or organisation because they are always seeking growth due to their belief in their capabilities. Personal development in such cases becomes more important. Coetzee and Schreuder (2016) state that in a protean career, an individual's personal development is more central to career development. A person's self-worth propels that individual to focus on developing aspects of their career that will increase their value in an organisation. The findings reveal that due to high personal self-esteem there is less stability and security as the individual seeks opportunities that allow personal development for career development.

In summary, the study found that the self-esteem variable was only significantly and negatively related to security and stability. The findings reveal that many aspects are significant in a person's career development.

6.1.2.2 The second aim. To determine whether self-esteem significantly predict career anchors.

The second aim, namely, to determine whether self-esteem significantly predict career anchors, was achieved in chapter 5.

The results provide supportive evidence for research hypothesis H_{a2}: Self-esteem significantly predict career anchors which supports the findings of the theoretical study.

It can be concluded that the current study found that self-esteem significantly predicts career anchors. A person's self-esteem can provide a certain trajectory that is likely to be followed by a certain individual in their career development. For instance, a higher self-esteem play a key role to success, both personally and professionally. Therefore, self-esteemed individuals can make career decisions and achieve their goals. These findings corroborate other finding by Kerka (1998) and Potgieter (2012) who also found out that individuals with high self-esteem are generally able to make career decisions and achieve their goals. Furthermore, a study carried out by Clarke (2013) also found that highly esteemed employees have high chances of achieving their goals.

6.1.2.3 The third aim. To formulate recommendations for the career development practices within the financial services industry and future research.

The findings in the literature review and the empirical results contribute to the field of human resource management. The literature review showed that there is an existing relationship between self-esteem and career anchors. Moreover, the empirical evidence contributes new information that self-esteem significantly predicts career anchors. A person's self-esteem is likely to shape a person's choice on career development thereby acting as a possible indicator on the trajectory that is taken by an individual with regards to their career. These findings confirm the existence of a relationship between self-esteem and career anchors.

Based on the findings above, it is recommended that organisations invest in reducing skills gaps and promote the development of employees. The study sought to understand the implications of career development practices as such the reduction of skills gaps is one of the implications of career development. Furthermore, the reduction of skills gaps can help improve employees' self-esteem as it helps to improve the capacity of the employees and create opportunities for the employees to be able to grow within the organisation. As pointed out by Converse et al. (2012), reducing skills gaps creates opportunities within the workplace as well as improve job satisfaction and work engagement. Organisation must be involved in career development planning and other initiatives that may enhance individual's career satisfaction. An organisation must a structure or initiative that outlines how each employee is going to grow and how each sector will help with that growth. The website of a company for instance can state the various initiatives that are offered by the organisation with regards to career development of employees. In the financial services, the outline of how a particular position can be expanded in terms of duties and roles, how the upward movement can be achieved.

The significant thing is that the career path will be clear to the employee as well as the support that is provided by the organisation. This clarity will boost the employee's self-esteem as they know what they are working towards. According to Guindon (2010) most people acknowledge that positive career development experiences can foster positive global and contingent self-esteem and low self-esteem can limit the person's opportunities for experiencing positive career situations by restricting the person's perceived opportunities. An organisation therefore must be able provide the employees with good career development structures and/or initiatives that allow employees to see a clear career path and growth. By doing so, individuals will feel worthwhile and productivity will increase. It will also increase employees' satisfaction. Riggio (2013) argues that good career development leads to enrichment of present job and increased job satisfaction. The author also purports that good career development results in greater sense of personal

responsibility for managing career. High self-esteem individuals are open to feedback and can understand circumstances positively. Mentorship programmes, establishing criteria for advancement, allocate suitable and team tasks and, clarifying values and goals of the organisation. Mentorship programmes should be one of the key focus. It will assist the organisation's career development programmes to focus on individuals with less experience develop a close relationship with a senior colleague. Such relationships enhance the self- image of the senior colleague. Establishing criteria for advancement means that the employee will not try to use other means to get promotion because of their high self-esteem. The allocation of team and suitable tasks implies that those with high self-esteem must work with other people which means they have to dependent or rely on some people at some point. Clarifying and outlining the values and goals of the organisation implies that all employees are kept focused on what is supposed to be achieved by the organisation rather than personal interests. Low self-esteem individuals tend to be more reserved, self-protective and cautious. Since low self-esteem affects an individual's ability to acquire new skills and being effective (Reece, 2014), as such organisations need to build the employees esteem by making sure that they are appreciated, encouraged and protected. Furthermore, the provision of self-esteem training material and giving feedback to employees.

6.2 LIMITATIONS

The limitations in terms of the literature review and empirical study are discussed below:

6.2.1 Limitations of the literature review

The literature review encountered the following limitations:

- Although there is literature available, there is lack of research on the literature in the South African context on the association between self-esteem and career anchors.
- Although there is wide research focusing on self-esteem and career anchors individually, few studies have focus on the relationship between the two constructs, especially in the South African financial services industry.
- Battle's (1992) model of self-esteem was used to guide the research, this limited the study to general self-esteem, personal self-esteem and social or peer self-esteem.
- Similarly, by using Schein's (2006) career anchor model, the study was limited to Schein's eight career anchors: managerial competency; technical/functional capability; security; autonomy and independence; entrepreneurial ingenuity; pure challenge; service/dedication to a cause; and lifestyle integration.

6.2.2 Limitations of the empirical study

The literature review encountered the following limitations:

- The study was conducted in one financial services organisation and a non-probability, convenience sample was selected - the findings can therefore not be generalized to other financial service organisations or industries.
- The research was limited to two variables that were studied (self-esteem and career anchors); therefore, it does not provide a holistic view of factors that may influence career development of employees in the financial service industry.
- CFSEI-2AD (Battle, 1992) and COI (Schein, 2006) were reliant on the respondents' self-awareness and personal perceptions which could have possibly affected the validity of the results.
- A very low response rate was achieved.

Despite these limitations, the findings of the study could be used as a basis for understanding the relationship between self-esteem and career anchors.

6.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings, conclusions and limitations of the study, recommendations for human resource management and human resource practitioners as well as further research in the field are discussed below.

6.3.1 Recommendations for career development practices

Career development forms an integral part of the survival and growth of an organisation in a complex and changing environment (Naidoo, 2004; Pieters, 2011). Helping employees plan their careers can help lead to a more productive, satisfied, and loyal workforce (Gaffney, 2005; Noe, 1996). A well-structured career development programme should include:

- Human resource management must lead the efforts of career development and ensure that all individuals in the organisation have input in their own career development (McDonald & Hite, 2016).
- Human resource management must ensure that both employees and organisation create a partnership that enhances employees' knowledge, skills, competencies, and attitudes required for their current and future job assignments.
- Top management should focus on the strategic direction of the organisation which could be beneficial in ensuring alignment between strategy and career development.

- Top management must support career development initiatives for a career development to be a success.
- Managers should play a critical role in guiding and supporting employees to take responsibility for increasing their self-esteem and develop career guidance framework and interventions to help individuals gain insights into their career anchors.
- Employees must take charge of their careers and accept this responsibility.
- Individuals must start making plans for their future development so that they can grow, learn, progress, and thrive in the employment market as well as in their personal life.

In planning the direction of career development, it is important to establish the evaluation processes that will be employed to determine the effectiveness of the initiatives developed (Schutt, 2012). Career development efforts must be evaluated at organisational and individual level for both organisation and employees to benefit from career development (McDonald & Hite, 2005; 2016). Evaluation should be done strategically to determine what is working and not working, implement improvements when necessary and assess the effectiveness that the organisation and individuals derive from career development systems (McDonald & Hite, 2005; 2016).

6.3.2 Recommendations relating to self-esteem and career anchors

The empirical study confirmed the relationship between self-esteem and career anchors. Both self-esteem and career anchors can be enhanced to ensure better career development strategies. Human resources should engage in interventions to assist individuals in enhancing their self-esteem. Self-esteem should be enhanced in different ways and giving positive feedback is one of them. Individuals should be encouraged to take responsibility for increasing their self-esteem and for developing themselves. Individuals should take opportunities by making themselves visible within the organisation, networking and take on temporary assignments. As such employers must empower their employees to develop a sense of personal responsibility. This could be done by introducing self-esteem training manuals to employee learning programmes. One's self-esteem can be improved by developing an individual's competence, as well as emotions of self-worth through positive self-reinforcement and behaviour modelling. Developing of a career anchor is a self-diagnostic process that leads to a clearer career identity (Schein, 1996). Individuals with less experience must develop a close relationship with an experienced colleague who will be his/her mentor. Such relationships provide motivation, career guidance and support.

Organisations should accommodate their employees to build their self-esteem by means of making employees feel appreciated, capable, efficient, suitable and protected. Group sessions tend to be more successful in strengthening an individual's self-esteem. The enhancement of self-esteem is likely to promote employer/employee relationship in a working environment. Attaining new skills may increase performance or to develop individuals for a new job. Individuals can acquire new skill through formal or informal learning.

The comprehension of self-esteem in a working environment builds the emotional connection between the self and others. High self-esteem leads to individuals' feeling worthwhile and productivity will increase. As such career anchors offer the organisation a workable structure in terms of what to organise when it comes to career development opportunities that are in line with workers' career choices (Coetzee & Bergh, 2009). This will enhance employees' feelings of authenticity, which will lead to a more diverse productive workforce (Dries, 2011).

Therefore, both self-esteem and career anchors can be enhanced to ensure better career development strategies.

6.3.3 Recommendations for future research

The following recommendations for future research are made in the light of the findings, conclusions and recommendations:

- More research on the relationship between self-esteem and careers within the South African context is required.
- It is recommended that further research be conducted in other financial services organisations to provide a more detailed understanding.
- Future studies should be conducted on a bigger sample.

6.4 INTEGRATION OF THE RESEARCH

This research study explored the relationship between individuals' self-esteem and career anchors amongst individuals employed in the financial services industry. The research results indicate that there is a relationship between individuals' self-esteem and career anchors.

The literature results indicate that the variables of self-esteem and career anchors are closely related. This finding is supported by Assan (2013), Brockner and Guare (1983), and Ferreira et al., (2010), in that self-esteem has a direct impact on the choice of employment that one chooses which imply that self-esteem and the career anchors are closely related. In addition to the career

anchors as motivators for career development, Kerka (1998) indicated that self-esteem is also a contributing factor to the choice of careers and development.

The empirical results of the study provided significant statistical support for central hypotheses. The study found partial significant relationships between self-esteem and career anchors. Moreover, the study provided existence in support of self-esteem significantly predict career anchors.

In conclusion, the findings of this research study provided some insights into the relationship between self-esteem and career anchors. This research study may be useful in the disciplines of human resource management and staff members who wish to improve their individual's self-esteem and career anchors.

6.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter presented the conclusions of the research study in terms of the theoretical and empirical objectives. Possible limitations of the study were discussed, followed by recommendations for future research to explore the relationship between self-esteem and career anchors. Finally, the chapter integrated the results of this study.

The following research aim was achieved in this chapter:

- **Research aim 3:** To formulate recommendations for the career development practices within the financial services industry and future research.

This chapter concludes the research study.

LIST OF REFERENCES

- Abessolo, M., Rossier, J. & Hirschi, A. (2017). Basic Values, Career Orientations, and Career Anchors: Empirical Investigation of Relationships. *Frontiers in Psychology*. 8. 1556. 10.3389/fpsyg.2017.01556.
- Aboulafia, M. (2016). George Herbert Mead and the Unity of the Self. *European Journal of Pragmatism and American Philosophy*, VIII-1.
- Adler, A. (1927). *Understanding human nature*. New York. NY: Fawcett.
- Adler, A. (1956). *The individual psychology of Alfred Adler*. A systematic presentation in selections of his writings. New York: Basic Books.
- Aiken, L. S., & West, S. G. (1991). *Multiple regression: Testing and interpreting interactions*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Akkuş, B., Postmes, T. & Stroebe, K. (2017). Community Collectivism: A social dynamic approach to conceptualizing culture. *PLoS ONE* 12(9), e0185725. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0185725>.
- Allport, G.W. (1961). *Pattern and growth in personality*. New York: Holt, Rinehart, & Winston.
- Altiner, S. & Ayhan, M.B. (2018). An approach for the determination and correlation of diversity and efficiency of software development teams. *South African Journal of Science*, 114(3-4), Art. 2017-0331, 9 pages. <http://dx.doi.org/10.17159/sajs.2018/20170331>
- Amato, P.R. (2001). Children of divorce in the 1990s: an update of the Amato and Keith (1991) meta-analysis. *Journal of Family Psychology*, 15(3), 355-370.
- Amato, P.R. & Keith, B. (1991). Parental divorce and the well-being of children: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, 110(1), 26-46.
- Anderman, E.M., & Anderman, L.H. (2014). *Classroom motivation* (2nd ed.). Pearson Education Inc. United States of America.

- Antonius, R. (2013). *Interpreting Quantitative Data with IBM SPSS Statistics* (2nd ed.). California Sage Publication Limited.
- Armstrong, M., & Taylor, S. (2014). *Human Resource Management Practice* (13th ed.). Kogan Page Limited.
- Arthur, M.B., Khapova, S.N., & Wilderom, C.P.M. (2005). Career success in a boundaryless career world. *Journal of Organisational Behaviour*, 26, 177-202.
- Arthur, M.B., & Rousseau, D.M. (1996). *The boundaryless career: A new employment principle for a new organisational era*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Assan, E.A. (2013). *The Influence of Psychological Factors and Human Capital on Career Development in a Ghanaian Organisation: The Moderating Role of Organisational Support*. A Master's thesis for M.Phil. Industrial and Organisational Psychology degree at the University of Ghana.
- Babbie, E., (2013). *The Practice of Social Research*. Australia: Wadsworth / Cengage Learning.
- Babbie, E., Benaquisto, L. (2010). *Fundamentals of Social Research*. Nelson Education Limited.
- Baker, A.J.L., & Ben-Ami, N. (2011). To turn a child against a parent is to turn a child against himself: The direct and indirect effects of exposure to parental alienation strategies on self-esteem and well-being. *Journal of Divorce and Remarriage*, 52(7), 472-489.
- Banaji, M., & Holmes, J. (1994). The self in social contexts. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 45, 297-332.
- Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioural change. *Psychological Review*, 84, 191-215.
- Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Bandura, A. (1993). Perceived self-efficacy in cognitive development and functioning.

- Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. New York, NY: Freeman.
- Bandura, A. (1997a). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. San Francisco: W. H. Freeman.
- Bandura, A. (1997b). Self-efficacy and health behaviour. In A. Baum, S. Newman, J. Wienman, R. West & C. McManus (Eds.), *Cambridge handbook of psychology, health and medicine* (pp. 160-162). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Baron, R.A., & Byrne, D. (1997). *Social Psychology* (8th ed.). United States of America.
- Baron, R.A., & Byrne, D. (2003). *Social Psychology* (10th ed.). Pearson Education, Inc. United States of America.
- Battle, J. (1982). *Enhancing self-esteem and achievement*. Seattle: Special Child Publications.
- Battle, J. (1990). *Self-esteem: The new revolution*. Edmonton: James Battle & Associates.
- Battle, J. (1992). *Culture-free self-esteem inventories for children and adults*. Texas: Pro-Ed.
- Battle, J. (2002). *Culture-free inventories examiner's manual* (3rd ed.). Austin, tx: pro-ed.
- Baumeister, R. F. (1997). *Identity, self-concept and self-esteem*. Case Western Reserve University, USA: Academic Press.
- Baumeister, R. F., Campbell, J., Krueger, J., & Vohs, K. (2003). Does high self-esteem cause better performance, interpersonal success, happiness or healthier lifestyles? *Psychological Science in the Public Interest, 4*, 1-44.
- Beins, B., & McCarthy, M. (2018). *Research Methods and Statistics in Psychology*. Cambridge: Cambridge University
- Berber, N. & Slavić, A. (2014). The Practice of Career Development in the International Human Resource Management of the European Countries. *Journal of Engineering Management and Competitiveness (JEMC), 4 (1)*, pp. 21-26.

Bergh, Z. (2011). *Work Psychology* (1st ed.) Oxford University Press Southern Africa.

Bergh, Z.C., & Theron, A.L. (2009). *Psychology in the work context* (4th ed.). Oxford University Press Southern Africa.

Bergh, Z. C., & Theron, A. L. (2012). *Psychology in the workplace*. Oxford University Press, Cape Town

Betz, N. (2001). Career self-efficacy. In S.H. Osipow, F.T.L. Leong, & A. Barak, *Contemporary models in vocational psychology: A volume in honour of Samuel H. Osipow*. 55 -77. NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Bezuidenhout, M. 2011. The development and evaluation of a measure of graduate employability in the context of the new world of work. Unpublished master's dissertation. University of Pretoria, Pretoria

Bigliardi, B., Petroni, A., & Dormio A.I. (2005). Organisational socialisation, career aspirations and turnover intentions among design engineers. *Leadership and Organisation Development Journal*, 26(6), 424-41.

Biolcati, R. (2017). The Role of Self-Esteem and Fear of Negative Evaluation in Compulsive Buying. *Frontiers in Psychiatry*, 8, 74. <http://doi.org/10.3389/fpsy.2017.00074>.

Biswakarma, G. (2016). Organisational Career Growth and Employees' Turnover Intentions: An empirical evidence from Nepalese Private Commercial Banks. *International Academic Journal of Organisational Behaviour and Human Resource Management*, 3(2), 10-26.

Bleidorn, W., Arslan, R.C., Denissen, J.J.A., Rentfrow, P.J., Gebauer, J.E., Potter, J. & Gosling, S.A. (2016). Age and Gender Differences in Self-Esteem—A Cross-Cultural Window. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 111(3), 396 – 410.

Bode, C. (2015). Psychosocial Development in Middle Childhood and Early Adolescence: A Handbook for Icehearts' Educators. Diaconia University of Applied Sciences, Helsinki.

Bowling, N. A., Wang, Q., Tang, H. Y., & Kennedy, K. D. 2010. A comparison of general and

- work-specific measures of core self-evaluations. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 76, 559-566.
- Bowyer, B.T. & Rogowski, J.C. (2017). Mode matters: Evaluating response comparability in a mixed-mode survey. *Political Science Research and Methods*, 5(2), 295–313. doi:10.1017/psrm.2015.28.
- Branden, N. (1969). *The psychology of self-esteem*. New York: Bantam.
- Branden, N. (1994). *The six pillars of self-esteem*. New York: Bantam.
- Brewer, M. B., & Gardner, W. (1996). Who is this “we”? Levels of collective identity and self-representations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 71, 83-93.
- Briscoe, J.P., Henagan, S.C., Burton, J.P., & Murphy, W.M. (2012). Coping with an insecure employment environment: The differing roles of protean and boundaryless career orientations. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 80, 308-316.
- Brizio, A., Gabbatore, I., Tirassa, M. & Bosco, F.M. (2015). No more a child, not yet an adult: studying social cognition in adolescence. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 6, 1011. <http://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2015.01011>.
- Brockner, J., & Guare, J. (1983). Improving performance of low self-esteem individuals: An attributional approach. *Academy of Management Journal*, 26, 642-656.
- Button, K. S., Ioannidis, J. P. A., Mokrysz, C., Nosek, B. A., Flint, J., Robinson, E. S. J. & Munafò, M. R. (2013). Power failure: why small sample size undermines the reliability of neuroscience. *Nature Reviews Neuroscience*, 14, p 365–376.
- Cadin, L., Bailly-Bender, A., & Saint-Giniez, V. (2000). Exploring boundaryless careers in the French context. In M.Peiperl, M. Arthur, R, Goffee & T. Morris (Eds.). *Career frontier: new conceptions of working lives* 228-255. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Callegaro, M.; Manfreda, K.L.; & Vehovar, V. (2015). *Web Survey Methodology* (1st ed.). Sage Publications, Inc.

- Cameron, R. (2009). Theoretical bridge-building: The Career Development project for the 21st century meets the new era of Human Resource Development. *Australian Journal of Career Development*, 18 (3), 9-17.
- Cervone, D., Pervin, L.A. (2013). *Personality Theory and Research* (12th ed.). United States of America.
- Cesinger, B. (2011). Measurement of objective and subjective career success. Stiftungslehrstuhl Für Unternehmensgründungen Und Unternehmertum (Entrepreneurship) an Der Universität Hohenheim, 1–12.
- Chang, C.L. (2010). The study of the turnover of MIS professionals: The gap between Taiwanese and US societies. *International Journal of Information Management*, 30(4), 301-314.
- Chang, C.L.H., Jiang, J.J., Klein, G., & Chen, H.G. (2012). Career anchors and disturbances in job turnover intentions – A case study of IT professionals in Taiwan. *Information & Management*, 49, 309–319.
- Chen, B. (2013). The universal and culture specific character of basic psychological need satisfaction. PhD thesis, University of Gent.
- Chung, J. M., Robins, R. W., Trzesniewski, K. H., Nettle, E. E., Roberts, B. W. & Widaman, K. F. (2014). Continuity and Change in Self-Esteem During Emerging Adulthood. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 106(3), 469–483. <http://doi.org/10.1037/a0035135>.
- Clarke, M. (2013). The organisational career: Not dead but in need of redefinition. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 24(4), 684-703.
- Cline, L. & Kisamore, J.L. (2008). The changing nature of careers and career management: recommended roles and responsibilities for employees and organisations. *Paper presented at the Annual Conference of the Midwest Academy of Management. St. Louis, Missouri, 2–4 October*.
- Clinton-Baker, M. (2013). *The relationship between career anchors, organisational*

commitment and turnover intention (Unpublished masters dissertation). Department of Industrial and Organisational Psychology University of South Africa, Pretoria.

Coetzee, M. (2005). *The relationship between personality preferences, self-esteem and emotional competence* (Unpublished doctoral thesis). University of South Africa, Pretoria.

Coetzee, M. (2008). Psychological career resources and subjective work experience of working adults. *South African Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 34(2), 32-41.

Coetzee, M. (2009). *The degree is not enough: Does ODL addresses the challenge of graduate employability in a skills development era?* Inaugural lecture, University of South Africa, Pretoria. Unpublished manuscript.

Coetzee, M., Mogale, P.M., & Potgieter, I.L. (2015). Moderating role of affectivity in career resilience and career anchors. *Journal of Psychology in Africa*, in press.

Coetzee, M., Roythorne, H., & Mensele, C. (2016). Career counselling and guidance in the workplace: A manual for career development practitioners. Cape Town: Juta.

Coetzee, M., & Schreuder, D. (2008). A multi-cultural investigation of students' career anchors at a South African higher education institution. *Labour South African Journal of Labour Relations*, 32(2), 45-65.

Coetzee, M. & Schreuder, D. (2009). Psychological career resources as predictors of working adults' career anchors: An exploratory study. *South African Journal for Industrial Psychology*, 35(1), 1-11.

Coetzee, M., & Schreuder, D. (2010). *Personnel Psychology: An Applied Perspective*. Town: Oxford University Press Southern Africa.

Coetzee, M., & Schreuder, A. (2010). Psychological career resources as predictors of working adults' career anchors: An exploratory study: Unpublished research report, Department of Industrial and Organisational Psychology, University of South Africa.

Coetzee, M. & Schreuder, D. (2011). The relation between career anchors, emotional

intelligence and employability satisfaction among workers in the service industry. *Southern African Business Review*, 15(3), 76-97.

Coetzee, M. & Schreuder, A.M.G. (2013). Career anchors as a meta-capacity in career development. In M. Coetzee (Ed.), *Psycho-social career meta-capacities: dynamics of contemporary career development* (pp. in press). Dordrecht: Springer International.

Coetzee, M. & Schreuder, A.M.G. (2014). Career anchors as a meta-capacity in career development. In M. Coetzee (ed.), *Psycho-social career meta-capacities: dynamics of contemporary career development* 39-154. Dordrecht: Springer International.

Coetzee, M., & Schreuder, D. (2016). *Personnel Psychology: An Applied Perspective* (1st ed.). Cape Town: Oxford University Press Southern Africa.

Cohen, J. (1992). Quantitative methods in psychology: A power primer. *Psychological Bulletin*, 112(1), 155–159.

Cohen, J., Cohen, P., West, S. G., & Aiken, L. S. (2003). *Applied multiple regression/correlation analysis for the behavioural sciences* (3rd ed.). New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Colakoglu, S.N. (2011). The impact of career boundaryless on subjective career success: role of career competencies, career autonomy, and career insecurity. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 79, 47-59.

Converse, P. D., Pathak, J., DePaul-Haddock, A. M., Gotlib, T., & Merbedone, M. (2012). Controlling your environment and yourself: Implications for career success. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 80(1), 148–159. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2011.07.003>
Diener, E., Wirtz, D., Tov, W., Kim-Prieto, C., Choi, D., Oishi,

Cook, D. A., & Artino, A. R. (2016). Motivation to learn: an overview of contemporary theories. *Medical Education*, 50(10), 997–1014. <http://doi.org/10.1111/medu.13074>.

Cooley, C.H. (1902). *Human nature and the social order*. New York: Scribner.

Coopersmith, S. (1959). A method for determining types of self-esteem. *Journal of abnormal Social Psychology*, 59, 87-94.

Coopersmith, S. (1967). *The antecedents of self-esteem*. San Francisco: W. H. Freeman & Co.

Covey, S.R. (1989). *The Seven Habits of Highly Effective People*. New York: Simon & Schuster Inc.

Dacre Pool, L., & Sewell, P. (2007). The key to employability: developing a practical model of graduate employability. *Journal of Education and Training* 49 (4), 227 – 289.

David, L. (2015). Social Identity Theory (Tajfel, Turner), in *Learning Theories*.
<https://www.learning-theories.com/social-identity-theory-tajfel-turner.html>.

Davids, S.A. (2015). The relationship between self-efficacy, goal-setting and achievement motivation among students in their final year at a selected university in the Western Cape Province. Master's Thesis for Industrial Psychology, University of the Western Cape.

Davies, G.F., Greenhough, B.J., Hobson-West, P., Kirk, R.G.W., Applebee, K., Bellingan, L.C., et al. (2016). Developing a Collaborative Agenda for Humanities and Social Scientific Research on Laboratory Animal Science and Welfare. *PLoS ONE* 11(7): e0158791. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0158791>.

DeFillippi, R.J. & Arthur, M.B. (1994). The boundaryless career: A competency-based perspective. *Journal of Organisational Behaviour*, 15, 307-324.

Densten, I.L (2008). Leadership: current assessment and future needs. In S Cartwright and CL Cooper (eds). *The Oxford Handbook of Personnel Psychology*, 93-120. New York: Oxford University Press.

Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET). (2014). *Government Gazette Notice 380: National Scarce Skills List, Version 20 May 2014*. Pretoria, South Africa: Government Printer.

Desai, P.B. (2017). Values Practices and Identity Sustenance in Dual-identity Organisations. *Journal of Human Values* 23(1) 1–12.

- De Villiers, M (2009). *The relationship between employee wellness and career anchors* (Unpublished masters dissertation). Department of Industrial and Organisational Psychology University of South Africa, Pretoria.
- Doménech-Betoret, F., Abellán-Roselló, L., & Gómez-Artiga, A. (2017). Self-Efficacy, Satisfaction, and Academic Achievement: The Mediator Role of Students' Expectancy-Value Beliefs. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 8, 1193.
<http://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2017.01193>
- Dries, N. (2011). The meaning of career success. *Career Development International*, 16, 364-384.
- Dryden, L. (2016). The correlation between levels of physical activity, academic performance and self-esteem in Grade 4 children in a South African private school. MA Counselling Psychology Thesis, University of Pretoria.
- Duffy, R.D. & Dirk, B.J. (2009). Beyond the Self: External Influences in the Career Development Process. *The Career Development Quarterly*, 58.
- Duquia, R. P., Bastos, J. L., Bonamigo, R. R., González-Chica, D. A. & Martínez-Mesa, J. (2014). Presenting data in tables and charts. *Anais brasileiros de dermatologia*, 89(2), 280–285. doi:10.1590/abd1806-4841.20143388.
- Dutra, E.M.S. (2016). Rogers and Heidegger: Is a gathering for a new view of the self possible? *Estudos de Psicologia (Campinas)*, 33(3), 413-423.
<https://dx.doi.org/10.1590/1982-02752016000300005>.
- Dutton, J.E., Dukerich, J.M., & Harquail, C.V. (1994). Organisational images and member identification. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 39, 239-263.
- Eby, L.T., Butts, M., & Lockwood, A. (2003). Predictors of success in the era of the boundaryless career. *Journal of Organisational Behaviour*, 24, 689-708.
- Efklides, A., & Moraitou, D. (2013). *A positive psychology perspective on quality of life: Social indicators research series*. New York: Springer Publishers.

- Epstein, S. (1973). The self-concept revisited: Or a theory of a theory. *American Psychologist*, 28, 404-416.
- Epstein, S. (1979). The ecological study of emotions in humans. In K. Blenstein (Ed.), *Advances in the study of communications and affect* (pp. 47-83). New York: Plenum.
- Epstein, S. (1980). The self-concept: A review and the proposal of an integrated theory of personality. In E. Straub (Ed.), *Personality: Basic aspects and current research* (pp. 83-131). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall. 535
- Erdoğan, N. (2004). Career orientations of salaried professionals: The case of Turkey. *Career Development International*, 9(2), 153–175.
- Erol, R., & Orth, U. (2011). Self-esteem development from age 14 to 30 years: A longitudinal study. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 101(3), 607-619.
- Etikan, I., Musa, S.A. & Alkassim, R.S. (2016). Comparison of Convenience Sampling and Purposive Sampling. *American Journal of Theoretical and Applied Statistics*. 5(1),1-4. doi: 10.11648/j.ajtas.20160501.11.
- Ewen, R.B. (2010). *An Introduction to theories of personality* (7th ed.). USA: Psychology press.
- Farmer, O., Belton, S. & O'Brien, W. (2017). The Relationship between Actual Fundamental Motor Skill Proficiency, Perceived Motor Skill Confidence and Competence, and Physical Activity in 8–12-Year-Old Irish Female Youth. *Sports* 2017, 5, 74; doi:10.3390/sports5040074.
- Fedorenko, M. V. & Bykova, S. S. (2016). Work of the psychologist on correction of senior preschool children self-esteem. *International Journal of Environmental and Science Education*, 11(9), 2773-2783.
- Feldman, D.C., & Bolino, M.C. (1996). Careers within careers: Reconceptualising the nature of career anchors and their consequences. *Journal of Human Resources Review*, 6(2), 89-112.

- Feldman, D.C. & Bolino, M.C. (2000). Career patterns of the self-employed: Career motivations and career outcomes. *Journal of Small Business Management*, 38(3), 53-67.
- Feldman, D.C. (2002). *Work careers: a developmental perspective*. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.
- Ferreira, N. (2012). *Constructing a psychological career profile for staff retention*. Unpublished doctoral thesis, University of South Africa, Pretoria, South Africa.
- Ferreira, N. & Coetzee, M. (2010). Psychological career resources and organisational commitment: exploring sociodemographic differences. *South African Journal of Labour Relations*, 34(2), 25-41.
- Ferreira, N., Basson, J., & Coetzee, M. (2010). Psychological career resources in relation to organisational commitment: An exploratory study. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management/ SA Tydskrif vir Menslikehulpbronbestuur*, 8(1), 1-10. doi: 10.4102/sajhrm.v8i1.284
- Field, A. (2013). *Discovering statistics using IBM SPSS statistics*. London: Sage.
- Flett, G.L. (2007). *Personality Theory and Research: An International Perspective* (1st ed.). Mississauga, Ont.: J. Wiley and Sons Canada
- Finnegan-Davies, M. (2015). A case study to elucidate any differences in self-esteem between key stage three pupils in receipt of free school meals and their peers. Cardiff Metropolitan University.
- Francis-Smythe, J., Haase, S., Thomas, E., & Steele, C. (2012). Development and validation of the Career Competencies Indicator (CCI). *Journal of Career Assessment*, 21, 227-248.
- Fielding, N.G., Lee, R.M. & Blank, G. (2017). *The SAGE handbook of online research methods* (2nd ed.). Sage Publications: London.
- Fugate, M., Kinicki, A.J., & Ashforth, B.E. (2004). Employability: A psychosocial construct, its dimensions, and applications. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 65, 14-38.

- Gangloff, B. & Mazilescu, C. (2017). Normative Characteristics of Perceived Self-Efficacy. *Soc.Sci*, 6(139).
- Gaffney, S. (2005). Career development as a retention and succession planning tool. *Journal for Quality and Participation*. 28, 7-10
- Gentile, B., Twenge, J. M., & Campbell, W. K. (2010). Birth cohort differences in self-esteem, 1988-2008: A cross-temporal meta-analysis. *Review of General Psychology*, 14, 261-268.
- Gifford, R., Hine, D. W., & Veitch, J. A. (1997). Meta-analysis for environment-behaviour and design research illuminated with a study of lighting level effects on office task performance. In G. T. Moore & R. W. Marans (Eds.), *Advances in environment, behaviour and design - Toward the integration of theory, methods, research and utilization*, Vol. 4 (pp. 223–253). New York: Plenum Press.
- Gilley, J.W., Eggland, S.A., & Gilley, A.M. (2002). *Principles of human resource development* (2nd ed.). Cambridge, M.A: Perseus.
- Gravetter, F.J. & Forzano, L.B. (2018). *Research Methods for the Behavioural Sciences*. 6th Ed. Boston: Cengage.
- Gray, D.E. (2014). *Doing research in the real world* (3rd ed.). London: Sage Publications.
- Gray-Little, B., & Hafdahl, A. (2000). Factors influencing racial comparisons of self-esteem: A quantitative review. *Psychological Bulletin*, 126(1), 26-54.
- Gedro, J. (2017). *Identity, Meaning, and Subjectivity in Career Development: Evolving Perspectives in Human Resources*. Palgrave: Macmillan
- Green, P.I., Finkel, E.J., Fitzsimons, G.M. & Gino, F. (2017). The energizing nature of work engagement: Toward a new need-based theory of work motivation. *Research in Organizational Behavior* 37, 1–18. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.riob.2017.10.007>.
- Greenhaus, J.H., & Callanan, G.A. (1994). *Career Management*. (2nd ed.). Dryden Press

- Greenhaus, J.H., Callanan, G.A., & Godshalk, V.M. (2010). *Career management*. Los Angeles, CA: Sage.
- Guindon, M.H. (2010). *Self-esteem across the lifespan: issues and interventions*. New York: Routledge
- Hair, J., Black, W., Babin, B., & Anderson, R. (2010). *Multivariate data analysis*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Hall, D.T. (1976). *Careers in organisations*. Glenview, I.L: Scott Foresman & Co.
- Hall, D. T. (2013). Protean careers of the 21st century. In K. Inkson & M. L. Savickas (Eds.), *Career studies* (Vol. 1, pp. 245-254). London: Sage.
- Hall, D.T. & Las Heras, M. (2012). Personal growth through career work: A positive approach to careers. In K.S. Cameron & G.M Spreizer, *The Oxford handbook of positive organisational scholarship* (pp 507-518). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Hattie, J. (2014). *Self-concept*. New York: Psychology Press.
- Heatherton, T.D., & Wyland, C. (2003). Why do people have self-esteem? *Psychology Inquiry*, 14(1), 38 -41.
- Heller, R. (2009). *Successful Manager's Handbook: The essential practical guide to achieving results* New York: Dorling Kindersley
- Hellmann, J. N. (2014). Social and Psychological Factors Related to the Career Exploration Process of Young Adults. Theses and Dissertations--Family Sciences. 19. http://uknowledge.uky.edu/hes_etds/19.
- Henry, G.T. (2014). *Practical sampling: SAGE research methods*. Retrieved from www.o.srmo.sagepub.com.unisa.ac.za
- Herrbach, O., & Mignonac, K. (2012). Perceived gender discrimination and women's subjective career success: The moderating role of career anchors. *Relations Industrielles*, 67(1), 2550.

- Heslin, P.A. (2005). Conceptualising and evaluating career success. *Journal of Organisational Behaviour*, 26, 113-136.
- Heppner, M.J., Multon, K.D., & Johnston, J.A. (1994). Assessing psychological resources during career change: Development of the Career Transitions Inventory. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 44, 55-74.
- Hess, N., & Jepsen, D. M. (2009) "Career stage and generational differences in psychological contracts", *Career Development International*, Vol. 14 Issue: 3, 261-283, <https://doi.org/10.1108/13620430910966433>
- Hewitt, J. (2002). *The social construction of self-esteem*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Hewitt, J.P. (2009). *Oxford Handbook of Positive Psychology*. Oxford University Press. pp. 217–224.
- Holland, J.L. (1973). Making vocational choices: a theory of careers. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Holland, J. (1996). Exploring careers with a typology: What we have learned and some new directions. *American Psychologist*, 51, 397-406.
- Holland, J. L. (2013). Exploring careers with a typology: what we have learned and some new directions. In K Inkson and ML Savickas (eds) *Career studies, Vol 1 Foundations of career studies*, 105 – 122. London: SAGE.
- Hughes, K.L., & Karp, M.M. (2004). School-based career development: A synthesis of the literature. Columbia: National Training Support Centre.
- Hsu, M.K., Jiang, J.J., Klein, G., & Tang, Z. (2003). Perceived career incentives and intent to leave. *Information and Management*, 40, 361-369.
- Ibarra, H. (1999). Provisional selves: Experimenting with image and identity in professional adaptation. *Administrative Quarterly Science*, 44, 764-791.
- IBM Corp. (2015). *IBM SPSS statistics for windows, version 24.0*. Armonk, NY: IBM Corp.

- Ismail, S. (2015). *Self-esteem, graduateness skills and attributes and career adaptability of the young adult in the school-to-work transition phase* (Unpublished masters dissertation). Department of Human Resource Management University of South Africa, Pretoria.
- Imison, C., Castle-Clarke, S. & Watson, R. (2016). Reshaping the workforce to deliver the care patients need. Research Report. Nuffield Trust.
- Jackson, C. L., Colquitt, J. A., Wesson, M. J., & Zapata-Phelan, C. P. (2006). Psychological collectivism: A measurement validation and linkage to group member performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91, 884-899.
- James, W. (1890). *Principles of psychology*. New York: Dover Publications, Inc.
- Jarymowicz, M. (2015). Mental Barriers and Links Connecting People of Different Cultures: Experiential vs. Conceptual Bases of Different Types of the WE-Concepts. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 6, 1950. <http://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2015.01950>.
- João, T.F., & Coetzee, M. (2011). Perceived career mobility and preference, job satisfaction and organisational commitment in the financial sector: An exploratory study. *South African Journal of Labour Relations*, 35(1), 38–60.
- Johnson, G. (2014). *Research Methods for Public Administration* (3rd ed.). Armonk, New York.
- Johnson, R.B., & Christensen, L. (2017). *Educational Research: Quantitative, Qualitative and Mixed Approaches* (6th ed.). Sage Publications, Inc.
- Johnson, R. E., Chang, C., & Rosen, C. C. (2010). "Who I am depends on how fairly I am treated": Effects of justice on self-identity and regulatory focus. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 3020-3058.
- Josephs, R., Markus, H. Z., & Tafarodi, R. W. (1992). Gender and self-esteem. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 63(3), 391-402.
- Jussim, L. (2005). Accuracy in social perception: Criticisms, controversies, criteria, components and cognitive processes. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, 37, 1-93.

Kanfer, R., & Klimoski, R. (2002). *Looking back to the future*. New York: Jossey-Bass.

Kanye, B. & Crous, F. (2007). Graduate interns' experiences: A career success orientations approach. *South African Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 33(3), 84-93.

Kashdan, T.B., DeWall, C.N., Masten, C.L., Pond, R.S., Powell, C., Combs, D., Schurtz, D.R., Farmer, A.S. (2014). Who Is Most Vulnerable to Social Rejection? The Toxic Combination of Low Self-Esteem and Lack of Negative Emotion Differentiation on Neural Responses to Rejection. *PLoS ONE* 9(3): e90651. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0090651>.

Kaushik, M. & Mathur, B. (2016). Data Analysis of Students Marks with Descriptive Statistics. *International Journal on Recent and Innovation Trends in Computing and Communication*. 2. 2321-8169.

Kaye, B. & Smith, C.P (2012). Career development: Shifting from nicety to necessity. *T+D*, 52-55.

Kerka, S. (1998). Career Development and Gender, Race and Class. *Clearinghouse on Adult, Career and Vocational Education*, 199.

Kernis, M. H. (2005). Measuring self-esteem in context: The importance of stability of self-esteem in psychological functioning. *Journal of Personality*, 73(1), 1-37.

Kernis, M. H. (2006). *Self-esteem, issues and answers. A sourcebook of issues and answers*. New York: Psychology Press.

Kernis, M.H. & Waschull, S.B. (1995). The interactive roles of stability and level of self-esteem: Research and theory. In M.P. Zanna (Ed.), *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, 27, 94-142. New York: Academic Press.

Keyton, J. (2015). *Communication Research: Asking Questions, Finding Answers* Keyton, J. (4th ed.). McGraw-Hill Education New York.

Khalid, M.A., Ahmed, M. & Sumera, L. (2013). A Study of Self-Esteem among Cambodian

Students and its Association with Aspirations. *Journal of Educational and Social Research*, 3(3).

Korman, A. K. (1970). Toward a hypothesis of work behaviour. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 54(1), 31-41.

Kuada, J. (2012). *Research Methodology: A Project Guide to University Students* (1st ed.). Samfundslitteratur.

Landy, F.J., & Conte, J.M. (2013). *Work in the 21st century – An introduction to industrial and organisational psychology* (4th ed.). United States of America.

Leão, E.R., Dal Fabbro, D.R., Oliveira, R.B., Santos, I.R., Victor, E.S., Aquarone, R.L., Andrade, C.B., Ribeiro, V. F., de Oliveira, R.C., Friedlander, R. & Ferreira, D.S. (2017). Stress, self-esteem and well-being among female health professionals: A randomized clinical trial on the impact of a self-care intervention mediated by the senses. *PLoS ONE* 12(2): e0172455. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0172455>.

Leary, M. R. (1999). The social and psychological importance of self-esteem. In R. M. Kowalski & M. R. Leary (Eds.), *The social psychology of emotional and behavioural problems: Interfaces of social and clinical psychology* (pp. 197-221). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Leary, M.R. (2004). The sociometer, self-esteem, and the regulation of interpersonal behaviour. In R.F. Baumeister & K.D. Vohs (Eds.), *The handbook of self-regulation: Research, theory and application* (pp. 373-391). New York, NY: Guilford.

Leary, M.R., & Downs, D.L. (1995). International functions of the self-esteem motive: The self-esteem system as a sociometer. In M.H. Kernis (Ed.), *Efficacy, agency, and self-esteem* (pp.123-144) New York, NY: Plenum.

Leary, M. R., Tambor, E. S., Terdal, S. K., & Downs, D. L. (1995). Self-esteem as an interpersonal monitor: The sociometer hypothesis. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 68(3), 518-530.

Leary, M.R. & Tangney, J.P. (2012). *Handbook of Self and Identity*. 2nd Ed. New York: The Guilford Press.

- Leitner, J.B., Hehman, E., Deegan, M.P. & Jones, J.M. (2014). Adaptive Disengagement Buffers Self-Esteem From Negative Social Feedback. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin* 1–16.
- Lent, R.W. & Brown, S.D. (1996). Social cognitive approach to career development: An overview: *Career Development Quarterly*, 44, 310-321.
- Lee, Y. (2005). Needs Assessment for Career Development Programs in the Taiwan Power Company (TPC).
- Lee-Flynn, S. C., Pomaki, G., de Longis, A., Biesanz, J. C., & Puterman, E. (2011). Daily cognitive appraisals, daily affect, and long-term depressive symptoms: The role of self-esteem and self-concept clarity in the stress process. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 37(2), 255-268.
- Leong, F.T.L., Rosenberg, S.D., & Chong, S. (2013). A psychometric Evaluation of Schein's (1985) Career Orientations Inventory. *Journal of Career Assessment*, 22(3), 524-538.
- Lertwannawit, A., Serirat, S. & Pholpantin, S. (2009). Career Competencies and Career Success of Thai Employees in Tourism and Hospitality Sector. *International Business & Economics Research Journal*, 8(11).
- Levinson, D.J. (1986). A conception of adult development, *American Psychologist*, 41, 3-13
- Lewis, R., & Zibarras, L. (2013). *Work and Occupational Psychology: Integrating Theory and Practice* (1st ed.). Sage Publications Limited.
- Li, Z. (2018). *Transportation Asset Management: Methodology and Applications*. Boca Raton: CRC Press.
- Lin, W., & Van Ryzin, G. G. (2013). Web and mail surveys: An experimental comparison of methods for non-profit research. London: SAGE Publications Ltd. <http://dx.doi.org/10.4135/9781446268513>.
- LoBiondo-Wood, G. & Haber, J. (2018). *Nursing Research-E-Book: Methods and Critical Appraisal for Evidence-Based Practices*. 9th Ed. New York: Elsevier.

- Lord, R., Brown, D., & Freiberg, S. (1999). Understanding the dynamics of leadership: The role of follower self-concepts in the leader/follower relationship. *Organisational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 78(3), 167-203.
- Mainiero, L.A. & Sullivan, S.E. (2005). Kaleidoscope careers: An alternate explanation for the “opt-out” revolution. *Academy of Management Executive*, 19, 106-123.
- Mäkinen, K. (2014). Individual awareness and its effect on organisation development and well-being. HAMK University of Applied Science.
- Malhi, R. S. (2010). *Self-esteem and academic achievement*. Retrieved May 09, 2017, from TQM Consultants:
- Manetje, O.M., & Martins, N. (2009). The relationship between organisational culture and organisational commitment. *Southern African Business Review*, 13(1), 87-111.
- Maree, J.G. (2010). Brief overview of the advancement of postmodern approaches to career counselling, *Journal of Psychology in Africa*, 20(3), 361- 368.
- Markus, H., & Cross, S. (1990). The interpersonal self. In L.A. Pervin (Ed.), *Handbook of personality: Theory and research* 576-608. New York: Guilford Press.
- Marshall, V., & Bonner, D. (2003). Career anchors and the effects of downsizing: Implications for generations and cultures at work: A preliminary investigation. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 27(6), 281–291.
- Martin, P. & Barnard, A. (2013). The experience of women in male-dominated occupations: A constructivist grounded theory inquiry. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology/SA Tydskrif vir Bedryfsielkunde*, 39(2), Art. #1099, 12 pages. <http://dx.doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v39i2.1099>.
- Maslow, A. (1968). *Toward a psychology of being* (2nd ed.). New York: Van Nostrand.
- Maslow, A. H. (1970). *Motivation and Personality*. New York: Harper & Row.

- McCauley, C.D., Russ, S.M., & Van Velsor, E. (1998). *The centre for creative leadership handbook of leadership development*. San Fransisco: Jossey Bass.
- McDonald, K.S. & Hite, L.M. (2005). Reviving the relevance of career development in human resource development. *Human Resource Development Review*, 4(4), 418-439.
- McDonald, P., Brown, K. & Bradley, L. (2005). Have traditional career paths given way to protean ones?: Evidence from senior managers in the Australian public sector, *Career Development International*, 10(2), 109-129, <https://doi.org/10.1108/13620430510588310>.
- McDonald, K.S. & Hite, L.M. (2016). *Career development: A Human Resource Development Perspective* (1st ed.). New York: Routledge, Francis & Taylor.
- McFadyen, J., & Rankin, J. (2016). The Role of Gatekeepers in Research: Learning from Reflexivity and Reflection. *GSTF Journal of Nursing and Health Care*, 4(1), 82-88.
- McGuire, D. (2014). *Human Resource Development* (2nd ed.). Sage Publications Limited.
- McMahon, M., Watson, M., & Bimrose, J. (2012). Career adaptability: a qualitative understanding from the stories of older women. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 80, 762-768.
- Mead, G. H. (1934). *Mind, self and society*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Meyer, M., & Kirsten, M. (2005). *Introduction to human resource management*. Cape Town: New Africa.
- Miles, J. (2015). The Impact of a Career Development Programme on the Career Self-Efficacy and Academic Motivation of Grade 11 Learners from Diverse Socio-Economic Backgrounds. A Doctoral Thesis for Philosophy at the Stellenbosch University.
- Miscenko, D. (2017). Leader development: An identity-based perspective. PhD thesis, University of Western Australia.

- Mirvis, P.H. & Hall, D.T. (1996). Psychological success and the boundaryless career. In M.B. Arthur & D.M. Rousseau (Eds.). *The boundaryless career* 237-255. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Mitchell, L.K., & Krumboltz, J.D. (1996). Krumboltz's theory of career choice and counselling. In D. Brown, L. Brooks, & Associates (Eds.), *Career choice development* (3rd ed.). 233-280. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Mogale, P.M. (2015). *Exploring emotional affect and career resilience in relation to career orientations in the public service* (Unpublished masters dissertation). Department of Industrial and Organisational Psychology University of South Africa, Pretoria.
- Mondy, R.W., & Martocchio, J.J. (2016). Human Resource Management (14th ed.). Pearson Education Limited.
- Mostert, K. & Joubert, A.F. (2015). Job Stress, Burnout and Coping Strategies in the South African Police Service.
- Mouton, J., & Marais, H.C. (1996). *Basic concepts in the methodology of the social sciences* (5th ed.). Pretoria: Human Sciences Research Council Publishers.
- Mruk, C. J. (2006). *Self-esteem: Research, theory and practice. Toward a positive psychology of self-esteem* (3rd ed.). New York: Springer.
- Mruk, C. (2018). *Feeling Good by Doing Good: A Guide to Authentic Self-Esteem*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Mruk, C. J. (2013). *Self-esteem and positive psychology* (4th ed.). New York: Springer.
- Müller, E., Appleton, M., Ricci, G., Valverde, A., & Reynolds, D. (2015). Capacity Development. In Worboys G., Lockwood M., Kothari A., Feary S., & Pulsford I. (Eds.), *Protected Area Governance and Management* (pp. 251-290). ANU Press. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/j.ctt1657v5d.16>
- Naidoo, A. (2004). *The Development of a Management Career Development Model to Empower and Advance Previously Disadvantaged Managers in the Automotive Sector*. A Doctoral Thesis for Business Administration at the University of Pretoria.

- Nardi, P.M. (2014). *Doing Survey Research: A Guide to Quantitative Methods* (3rd ed.). USA Paradigm Publishers.
- NCDA (National Career Development Association) (2003). Career development: a policy statement of the National Career Development Association Board of Directors (adopted 16 March 1993; revised 2003).
- Ndzube, F. (2013). *The relationship between career anchors and employability* (Unpublished masters dissertation). Department of Industrial and Organisational Psychology University of South Africa, Pretoria.
- Nik, I. & Mustafa, T. (2015). Rediscovering Rogers's Self Theory and Personality. *Journal of Educational, Health and Community Psychology*. 4. 2088-3129.
- Nel, P., Werner, A., Du Plessis, A., Ngalo, O., Poisat, P., & Sono T. (2011). *Human Resources Management* (8th ed.). Oxford University Press.
- Ng, T.W.H., Eby, L.T., Sorensen, K.L., & Feldman, D.C. (2005). Predictors of objective and subjective career success: A meta-analysis. *Personnel Psychology*, 58, 367-408.
- Nicholson, N. (1990). The transition cycle: causes, outcomes, processes and forms'. In S. Fischer & C.L. Cooper (Eds.), *On the Move; the Psychology of Change and Transition*. Chichester: Wiley.
- Niles, S. G., Jacob, C. J., & Nichols, L. M. (2010). Career development and self-esteem. In M.H. Guindon (Ed.), *Self-esteem across the lifespan* (pp. 249-262). New York: Routledge.
- Noe, R.A. (1996). Is career management related to employee development and performance? *Journal of Organisational Behaviour*, 17, 119-133
- Obiunu, J.J. & Ebunu, O.R. (2014). Factors affecting career development of senior secondary school students in Ethiopia east local government area, Delta state, Nigeria. *International Journal of Guidance and Counselling*. Vol. 2 (1), pp. 005-010.
- O'Neil, J.M., Fishman, D.M., & Kinsella-Shaw, M. (1987). Dual-career couples'

career transitions and normative dilemmas: A preliminary assessment model. *Counselling Psychologist*, 15, 50-96.

Oluwajodu, F., Blaauw, D., Greyling, L., & Kleynhans, E. (2015). Graduate unemployment in South Africa: Perspectives from the banking sector. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, 13(1), 1-9. <https://doi.org/10.4102/sajhrm.v13i1.656>.

Oppong, N. Y. & Nisar, T. (2017). Exploring the importance of human resource activities-strategies alignments: Interactive brainstorming groups approach, *Cogent Business & Management*, 4:1, DOI: 10.1080/23311975.2016.1273081.

Orth, U., Robins, R., & Trzesniewski, K. (2010). Self-esteem development from young adulthood to old age: A cohort-sequential longitudinal study. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 98(4), 645–658.

Orth, U., Robins, R. W., & Widaman, K. F. (2012). Life-span development of self-esteem and its effects on important life outcomes. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 102(6), 271-1288.

Oosthuizen, M., Coetzee, M., & Mntonintshi, F. (2014). Investigating the relationship between employees' career anchors and their psychosocial employability attributes in a financial company. *Journal of Human Resource Management*, 12(1), 1-10.

Oosterhuis, H.M.A. (2017). Regression-based norming for psychological tests and questionnaires. PhD dissertation at Tilburg University.

Pallant J. (2007). *SPSS survival manual: A step by step guide to data analysis using SPSS for windows (version, 15) (3rd ed.)*. Maidenhead, UK: McGraw Hill/Open University Press.

Pato, T., & Spira, J. (2008). *SA searching in vain for 22000 accountants*. Retrieved February 23, 2008.

Patton, W., & McMahon, M. (1999). *Career Development and Systems theory: A new relationship*. Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks/Cole.

- Patton, W., & McMahon, M. (2006). *Career Development and Systems Theory*. Rotterdam: Sense Publishers.
- Peiperl, M., & Arthur, M. (2000). Topics for conversation: career themes old and new. In M. P. Peiperl, M. Arthur, R. Goffee & T. Morris (Eds.). *Career frontier: new conceptions of working lives* (pp. 1-20). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Penalva, J. (2014). The Non-theoretical View on Educational Theory: Scientific, Epistemological and Methodological Assumptions. *Journal of Philosophy of Education*, Vol. 48, No. 3, 2014.
- Peterson, G.W., Lumsden, J.A., Sampson, J.P., Reardon, R.C., & Lenz, J.G. (2002). Using a cognitive information processing approach in career counselling with adults. In S. Niles (Ed.), *Adult career development: Concepts, models and practices* (3rd ed.) (pp. 99 – 120). Tulsa, OK: National Career Development Association.
- Pieters. M.A. (2011). Textbook for Human Resource Practitioners (16th ed.). Paarl Media Paarl: Cape Town
- Potgieter, I. L. (2012). The relationship between the self-esteem and employability attributes of postgraduate business management students. *South African Journal of Human Resource Management*, 10(2), 419–434.
- Potgieter, I.L. (2012b). *The development of a career meta-competency model for sustained employability*. Unpublished doctoral thesis, University of South Africa, Pretoria, South Africa.
- Potgieter, I. L., Coetzee, M., & Masenge, A. 2012. Exploring employee's personality attributes in relation to their employability attributes in the business management field. *Journal of Psychology in Africa*, 22(4):589–598.
- Pramono, R.B. and Astuti, D. (2017). Cognitive Behavioral Therapy as an Effort to Improve Self- Acceptance of Adolescents in Orphanage. *The Open Psychology Journal*, 10, 161-169

Punch, K. F. (2014). *Introduction to social research: Quantitative and qualitative* (3rd ed.). London: Sage Publications.

Quinlan, C., (2011). *Business Research Methods*. United Kingdom Cengage Learning EMEA.

Rama, L. & Sarada, S. (2017). Role of self-esteem and self-efficacy on competence - A conceptual framework. *IOSR Journal of Humanities and Social Science (IOSR-JHSS)*, 22(2), 33-39.

Ramasamy, R. & Nithyanandan, D.V. (2016). Positive Psychological Factors of Career Development among Undergraduate Students. *The International Journal of Indian Psychology*. Vol. 3 (3), 58.

Reasoner, R., & Gilberts, R. (1991). *Student self-esteem inventory manual*. San Jose, CA: Educational Data Systems.

Reece, B.L., & Brandt, R. (2008). *Effective Human Relations: Personal Organisational Applications* (10th ed.). Boston: New York.

Reece, B. L. (2012). *Human relations: Principles and practices* (7th ed.). USA: Cengage Learning.

Reece, B.L. (2014). *Effective human relations: interpersonal and organisational applications*. 12th edition. USA: South Western Cengage Learning.

Riggio, R.E., (2013). *Introduction to Industrial/Organisational Psychology* (6th ed.). Pearson Education Limited.

Robins, R., Tracy, L.J. & Trzesniewski, K. (2018). Naturalizing the self.

Robins, R., Trzesniewski, K., Tracy, J., Gosling, S., & Potter, J. (2002). Global self-esteem across the life span. *Psychology and Aging*, 17, 423–34.

Robins, R. W., & Trzesniewski, K. H. (2005). Self-esteem development across the lifespan. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 14, 158-162.

Robbins, S.P., & Judge, T.A. (2012). *Essentials of organisational behaviour*. Upper Saddle River, N.J: Pearson prentice Hall.

Rogers, C. (1951). *Client-centred therapy*. New York: Houghton-Mifflin.

Rogers, C. R. (1959). A theory of therapy, personality and interpersonal relationships, as developed in the client-centered framework. In S. (. Koch, *Psychology, A study of science* (Vol. 3). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Rogers, C.R. (1961). *On becoming a person: A therapist view of psychotherapy*. New York: Houghton-Mifflin.

Rogers, C. R. (1963). The concept of a fully functioning person. *Psychotherapy: Theory, Research and Practice*, 1 (1), 17-26.

Ronn, M. (2010). The relationship between career management and organisational commitment: The moderating effect of openness to experience. A Master's Thesis for a Master of Commerce (Industrial Psychology) at the University of Stellenbosch.

Rosenberg, M. (1965). *Society and the adolescent self-image*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Rosenberg, M. (1979). *Society and the adolescent self-image* (rev. Ed.). Middletown, CT: Wesleyan University Press.

Rosenberg, M. (1986). Self-concept from middle childhood through adolescence. In J. Suls & A.G. Greenwald (Eds.), *psychological perspectives on the self* (Vol.3). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Rosenberg, M., & Owens, T.J. (2001). Low self-esteem people. In T.J. Owens, S. Sheldon, & N. Goodman (Eds.), *Extending self-esteem theory and research: Sociological and psychological currents* (pp. 400 -436). New York, NY: Cambridge.

Rothmann, I., & Cooper, C.L. (2015). *Work and Organisational Psychology* (2nd ed.). New York, Routledge.

Rothwell, J.D., (2013). *In the Company of others: An Introduction to Communication*

(4th ed.). Oxford University Press.

Rubio, F. (2014). Self-esteem and self-concept in foreign language learning. In S. Mercer, & M. William (Eds.), *Multiple perspectives on the self in SLA*. Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Saifuddin, S. (2017). Modeling Intention to Pursue a High-Tech Career using Social Cognitive Career Theory. PhD Thesis, Carleton University.

Salley, C. G., Vannatta, K., Gerhardt, C. A., & Noll, R. B. (2010). Social self-perception accuracy: Variations as a function of child age and gender. *Self and Identity*, 9(2), 209-223.

Sampson, J.P., Jr., Peterson, G.W., Lenz, J.G., & Reardon, R.C. (1992). A cognitive approach to career services: Translating concepts into practice. *Career Development Quarterly*, 41, 67-74.

Savickas, M. L. (2005). The theory and practice of career construction. In S. D. Brown & R.W. Lent (eds.), *Career development and counseling, putting theory and research to work* (42-70). New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons.

Savickas, M. L. (2013). Career construction theory and practice. In S. Brown, & R. Lent (Eds.), *Career development and counseling: Putting theory and research to work* (2nd ed.). 42-70. Hoboken: NJ: Wiley.

Schaffhuser, K., Allemand, M., & Schwarz, B. (2017). The development of self-representations during the transition to early adolescence: The role of gender, puberty, and school transition. *Journal of Early Adolescence*, 37(6), pp. 774-804.

Schein, E. H. (1975). How career anchors hold executive to their career paths. *Personnel*, 52(3), 11–24.

Schein, E. H. (1978). *Career dynamics: Matching individual and organisational needs*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Schein, E. H. (1990). *Career anchors: Discovering your real values*. San Diego, CA: Pfeiffer.

- Schein, E. H. (1996). Career anchors revisited: Implications for career development in the 21st century. *Academy of Management Executive*, 10(4), 80–88.
- Schein, E. (1993). Career anchors: Discovering your real values. Revised ed. California: Jossey-Bass Inc.
- Schein, E.H. (2006). *Career anchors: Participant workbook* (3rd ed.). San Francisco, CA: Pfeiffer.
- Schein, E.H. (2013). Career anchors revisited: Implications for career development in the 21st century. In K. Inkson & M. L. Savickas (Eds), *Career studies, Foundations of career studies*. Vol. I, 235-244. London: Sage Publications. 186
- Schmitt, N. (2012). *The Oxford Handbook of Personnel Assessment and Selection*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Schober, P., Boer, C. & Schwarte, L.A. (2018). Correlation Coefficients: Appropriate Use and Interpretation. *Anesthesia & Analgesia*, 126(5), 1763–1768.
- Schreuder, A. M. G., & Coetzee, M. (2006). *Careers: An organisational perspective* (3rd ed.). Cape Town: Juta.
- Schreuder, A.M.G., & Coetzee, M. (2011). *Careers: An organisational perspective* (4th ed.). Cape Town: Juta.
- Schreuder, A.M.G., & Coetzee, M. (2016). *Careers: An organisational perspective* (5th ed.). Cape Town: Juta.
- Schreuder, D., & Coetzee, M. (2011). The relation between career anchors, emotional intelligence and employability satisfaction among workers in the service industry. *Southern African Business Review* 15 (3), 76-97.
- Schutt, D.A., Jr. (2012). Establishing a thriving career development program. In D. Capuzzi & M.D. Stauffer (Eds.), *Career counselling: Foundations, perspectives, and applications* (pp. 253-277). New York: Taylor & Francis.

- Schutt, R. K. (2012). *Investigating the Social World: The Process and Practice of Research*. London: Sage Publications.
- Scotland, J. (2012). Exploring the Philosophical Underpinnings of Research: Relating Ontology and Epistemology to the Methodology and Methods of the Scientific, Interpretive, and Critical Research Paradigm. *English Language Teaching*, 5(9).
- Shackelford, T. K. (2001). Self-esteem in marriage. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 30, 371-390.
- Shakina, E. & Barajas, A. (2014). The dynamics of intellectual resources during the economic crisis, *Economic Research-Ekonomska Istraživanja*, 27:1, 861-881, doi: 10.1080/1331677X.2014.974918
- Shavelson, R., Hubner, J., & Stanton, G. (1976). Self-concept: Validation of construct interpretations. *Review of Educational Research*, 46(3), 407-441.
- Shurden, M. & Shurden, S. (2015). *Academy of Educational Leadership Journal*. 19(3).
- Simonsen, P. (1997). *Promoting a development culture in your organisation: Using career development as a change agent*. Palo Alto, CA: Davies-Black.
- Singh, S. & Wassenaar, D.R. (2016). Contextualising the role of the gatekeeper in social science research. *South African Journal of Bioethics and Law*, 9(1), 42-46. DOI:7196/SAJBL.465.
- Sithole, N. (2017). The Contribution of Tourism to Local Community Development: The Case of Shakaland Zulu Cultural Village. Master's thesis at Durban University of Technology.
- South African Institute of Chartered Accountants (SAICA). (2008). *The financial management, accounting and auditing skills shortage research report*, 2008. Retrieve February 23, 2008.
- Sowislo, J. F., & Orth, U. (2013). Does low self-esteem predict depression and anxiety? A meta- analysis of longitudinal studies. *Psychological Bulletin*, 139(1), 213-240.

- Spector, P.E., (2012). *Industrial and Organisational Psychology: Research and Practice* (6thed.). John Wiley & Sons Singapore Ltd.
- Stets, J.E. & Burke, P.J. (2014). Self-esteem and identities. *Sociological perspectives*, 57(4), 409-433.
- Steyn, H. (2002). Practical significant relationships between two variables. *South African Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 28(3), 10–15.
- Stumpf, S.A. & Tymon, Jr., W.G. (2012). The effects of objective success on subsequent subjective success. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 81, 345-353.
- Sullivan, H. S. (1953). *The interpersonal theory of psychiatry*. New York: Norton.
- Sullivan, S.E. & Arthur, M.B. (2006). The evolution of the boundaryless career concept: Examining physical and psychological mobility. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 69, 19-29.
- Super, D. E. (1957). *The psychology of careers*. New York: Harper and Row.
- Super, D. E. (1990). A life span, life space approach to career development. In D.Brown & L. Brookes (Eds.), *Career choice and development* (197-261). San-Francisco: Jossey Bass.
- Super, D.E. (1992). Towards a comprehensive theory of career development. In *Career Development: Theory and practice*, D. H Montross & C. J Shinkman (eds), 35-64. Illinois: Charles C Thomas Publishers.
- Super, D. E. (2013). Vocational development theory: persons, positions and processes. In K Inkson and ML Savickas (eds) *Career studies, Vol 1 Foundations of career studies*, 123-140. London: SAGE.
- Surbhi, S. (2016). Difference Between T-test and ANOVA. <https://keydifferences.com/difference-between-t-test-and-anova.html>.

- Susman, G. I. (1973). Job enlargement. Terre Blanche, M., & Durrheim, K. (2002). *Research in practice: Applied methods for the social sciences*. Cape Town: University of Cape Town Press.
- Thagard, P. & Wood, J. V. (2015). Eighty phenomena about the self: representation, evaluation, regulation, and change. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 6, 334. <http://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2015.00334>.
- Tracy, S. J. (2013). *Qualitative Research Methods: Collecting Evidence, Crafting Analysis, Communication Impact* (1st ed.). UK: John Wiley & Sons Limited.
- Tsang, S.K.M., Hui, E.K.P. & Law, B.C.M. (2012). Self-Efficacy as a Positive Youth Development Construct: A Conceptual Review. *The Scientific World Journal*, 2012, 452327. <http://doi.org/10.1100/2012/452327>.
- Tshilongamulenzhe. M.C. (2012). *Advanced Programme in Human Resource Management: Advanced Human Resource Development (AAHR04P)*. Pretoria: University of South Africa.
- Turnbull, S. (2004). Perceptions and experience of time-space compression and acceleration. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 19, 809-824.
- Turner, J., Oakes, P., Haslam, S., & McGarty, C. (1994). Self and collective: Cognition and social context. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 20, 454-463.
- Tyler, T.R., Kramer, R.M. & John, O.P. (2014). *The Psychology of the Social Self*. New York: Psychology Press.
- Twenge, J.M., & Campbell, W.K. (2001). Age and birth cohort differences in self-esteem: A cross-temporal meta-analysis. *Personality and social psychology review*, 5, 321–344.
- U'Ren, P. (2017). Athletic Identity, Identity Foreclosure, and Career Maturity of a NCAA Division II Female Student-Athlete. *Culminating Projects in Higher Education Administration*. 18.

- Valcour, M., Bailyn, L. & Quijada, M.A. (2007). Customized Careers. In H. Gunz & M. Peripert (Eds.), *Handbook of Career Studies*. London: Sage Publications.
- Vanin, G. (2015). The role of a career counsellor in enhancing the career development process of secondary school students (Doctoral thesis, Australian Catholic University).
- Van der Heijde, C.M., & Van der Heijden, B.I.J.M. (2006). A competence-based and multidimensional operationalisation and measurement of employability. *Human Resources Management*, 45(3), 449-476.
- Van Dyk, J. (2016). *The mediating effect of a psychological wellbeing profile in the bullying and turnover intention*. Unpublished doctoral thesis, University of South Africa, Pretoria, South Africa.
- Van Maanen, J., & Schein, E.H (2013). *The changing nature of work and careers* (4th ed.). San Francisco: Wiley
- Van Rensburg, J. A. & Ukpere, W. (2014). An Evaluation of Career Transition Phenomenon. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*. 5. 735. 10.5901/mjss.2014.v5n1p725.
- Van Vuuren, L., & Fourie, C. (2000). Career anchors and career resistance: Supplementary constructs?. *South African Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 26(3), 15-20
- Walliman, N. (2011). *Research Methods: The Basics*. New York: Routledge.
- Wanberg, C.R. & Kammeyer-Mueller, J. (2008). A self-regulatory perspective on navigating career transitions. In R. Kanfer, G. Chen, & R.D. Pritchard (Eds.), *Work motivation: Past, present, and future* 433-469. New York: Routledge.
- Weber, K. & Ladkin, A. (2011). Career Identity and its Relation to Career Anchors and Career Satisfaction: The Case of Convention and Exhibition Industry Professionals in Asia, *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 16:2, 167-182, doi: 10.1080/10941665.2011.556339.
- White, R. (1963). Ego and reality in psychoanalytic theory: A proposal regarding independent ego energies. *Psychological Issues*, 3, 125-150.

- Wieters, M.K. (2016). Advantages of online methods in planning research: Capturing walking habits in different built environments. *Sage Open*, 1, 1-11. DOI: 10.1177/2158244016658082.
- Willow-Peterson, K.A. (2016). Identity development among adolescent males enrolled in a middle school general music program. Boston University.
- Wils, L., Wils, T., & Tremblay, M. (2010). Toward a career anchor structure: An empirical investigation of engineers. *Industrial Relations* 65(2), p. 236-256.
- Wilson, E. (2013). *School-based Research: A guide for education students* (2nded.). London: Sage Publication.
- Zeigler-Hill, V. (2013). *Self Esteem*. New York: Psychology Press.
- Zeigler-Hill, V. (2012). The extended informational model of self-esteem. In S. de Wals & K. Meszaros (Eds.), *Handbook on psychology of self-esteem* (pp. 211-225). New York: Nova Science Publishers.
- Zeigler-Hill, V., Welling, L.L.A. & Shackelford, T.K. (2015). *Evolutionary Perspectives on Social Psychology*. New York: Springer International Publishing.
- Zimmerman, E.B., Woolf, S.H. & Haley, A. (2015). *Understanding the Relationship Between Education and Health: A Review of the Evidence and an Examination of Community Perspectives*. Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality, Rockville, MD.
<http://www.ahrq.gov/professionals/education/curriculum-tools/population-health/zimmerman.html>